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ADDRESSES AND JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS

AT THE

SESSION HELD IN ST. LOUIS

August 22, 23, 24, 1871.

THE

ADDRESSES

AND

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

SESSIONS OF THE YEAR 1871

AT

ST. LOUIS, MO.

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GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

The Association was called to order at 10 o'clock A. M., Tuesday, August, 22, 1871, by the President, Hon. J. L. PICKARD, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Chicago.

Prayer was offered by the Rev. DANIEL READ, President of the University of Missouri. His Excellency, Governor BROWN, on behalf of the State, and of the city of St. Louis extended a cordial welcome to the Association in the following address.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME BY HIS EXCELLENCY, GOVERNOR BROWN.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Association:

In the name and behalf of the people of Missouri, I desire to extend to you a most cordial, hospitable welcome. They appreciate the compliment your selection indicates of this, the great city of the West, as the local point of educational labor, and I am sure that intercourse with our scholars and our citizens generally will elicit great sympathy and encouragement in your work. Indeed, I shall not go too far in saying that nowhere in the valley of the Mississippi will you find more of interest centring in the cause of *right* education than here. The public schools of the city of St. Louis are models of efficient organization and munificent foundation. Its universities, academies and many of its private institutions are exciting attention in distant quarters by the extent of their curriculum and their admirable management. And then, again, the state itself has been liberal in provision, and scrupulously faithful in maintaining its trust, to offer the means of education to every child within its border. A large permanent fund stands safely invested to that account. Former donations from the general government have been turned over to county custody for the same purpose, and, although laxly cared for in the past, are now being scrupulously retrieved. The latest land grant from the nation, one of splendid proportion, has been placed under a wise and prudent management that bids fair to realize its utmost value. A well-grounded state university, an agricultural college, an institute of mines and mettallurgy, together with two large and well-appointed normal schools, are already organized, and in addition to the private furtherance of education, eight thousand teachers of the public schools are now faithfully laboring in the sub-districts of our state to convert into usefulness all this appliance. When I add, furthermore, that notwithstanding the burdens incident to late civil strife, and the successful restoration of our financial condition under great difficulties, one-fourth of the entire revenue of Missouri is annually and by constitutional clauses, set apart for the purposes of general education, you will perceive that it is a subject which commands here at least the most noteworthy attention. Not only is the schoolmaster abroad in our land, but we do not intend to let him starve in the vocation. [Applause.]

The subject of education is one whose vast importance to society I need not dwell upon in this presence. What its relations are, however, may be a matter some day of more thorough scientific inquiry than has ever yet obtained. For my own part I am something of a skeptic as to the general dogma that schooling, in its present accepted phraseology of popular education, is the foundation of all the virtue and morality of the community. I know that it is a favorite theory, and especially with the lecturers, that ignorance is the mother of vice and that knowledge is the road to virtue. But I think that the value of education to society is much misstated when thus presented. Education, as an aid to social life, is chiefly serviceable in the first instance as furnishing better facilities for the protection and provision for oneself and family in the present social condition, and second, for the larger comprehension it inculcates of interests and conventional dependencies that justify self-sacrifice in sustaining the social order. It is very customary declamation to pronounce that education is the great safeguard of republics against the decay of virtue and the reign of immorality. Yet, the facts scarcely bear out the proposition. The highest civilizations, both ancient and modern, have sometimes been the most flagitious. Nowadays certainly, your prime rascals are educated rascals. And it is at least doubtful whether education in itself, as now engineered, and confined merely to the acquisition of knowledge, has any tendency to mitigate the vicious elements of human nature further than to change the direction and type of crime. This is not alleged, be it understood, of moral culture or of religious instruction, but simply of the education of the intellect as it really obtains. We all recognize a great change has been produced in the categories of crime by the increasing diffusion of knowledge; that many of the old vices of human nature have almost vanished, such as "immortal hate and the study of revenge," which was the special target of elder moralists; but in their stead have come into being more acute knaveries, the very product of cultivated intellect. Do not the cheateries of the present day in all the various manifestations of adroitness rival any of the past; only that they are more refined, specious and educated? Have you not a class of crimes almost unknown to the former time, and are not your statute laws everlastingly running amuck with the increasing ingenuity of swindling. I say, therefore, frankly, that whilst an earnest advocate of education, believing that knowledge is power, confessing that true advancement can only repose upon education, yet it is only a self-delusion to misstate the question and blind our eyes to what it does effect, by claiming for it what it does not by any necessity accomplish. And this is no trifling matter, for, unless we do recognize its true bearings, we shall never know how to deal with its social results. In saying thus much, I have only desired to question one of those current affirmations so common nowadays in order that attention may be drawn to the more rational bearings of the subject, and the inquiry started as to what is the remedy for that concomitant crime which education fosters. It would render me extremely prolix to enter into any analytic discussion of this problem, and it may be sufficient, therefore, to indicate the general tenor of impression by saying that I believe the best remedy for the disease will be found, apart from moral and religious training elsewhere, in teaching somewhat of the actual compensations of nature.

In taking the criminal code into your schools and collating the action with the retribution, in demonstrating virtue as its own best reward, not by axiom but by illustration, and in showing forth by suitable methods that wrong is ever miscalculation, and therefore foreign to the first law of education. Have you to-day any text book of crime and misdemeanor in your schools? Do your young men grow up knowing what obtaining money under false pretences means? Are your lessons of the penitentiary and the reformatory ever applied in the school room? And yet, whilst forcing the faculties of youth to their highest acuteness, you would leave them unguarded amid sordid greed for gain, and unschooled in the principles of honor and integrity.

You have met, ladies and gentlemen, for the purpose of considering how far the great problems now mooted by the public mind in connection with the best methods of instruction may be advanced by concerted action and discussion. Whilst thus setting before you in brief, therefore, the outline of our establishment, I have deemed it best to accompany it with recognition of one of the chief shortcomings of education as it affects public society. You will understand, then, tha it is not the purpose to insist that we have here a system of general education that has attained more than proximate excellence. Without doubt, it is equal, if not superior, to that of most of the surrounding states, and yet in common with them all and with most modern systems of education, and, indeed, with the general customs of tuition that have grown up with the art of printing all over the world, deep underlying defects are manifest that must needs be corrected if the future is to realize the best results attainable.

I would not undertake to criticise the art of war in the presence of MARLBOROUGH, not to obtrude upon you who have dedicated your lives to this great work, crude and undigested suggestions of my own, and yet it will not be amiss to recognize that amongst all educated thinking men and women the divergence which has taken place between the mere textual routine method and the natural method of object lessons, oral teaching, self-instruction is becoming more manifest each year, and is calling more loudly for redress.

If the object of all education be to form and develop a perfect life, then it is evident that it must touch life—the life of the present, not of the past—on all sides, and to that end there need will be vast changes in what is taught at our schools no less than in the manner it is taught. A celebrated English writer who has analyzed this subject with great power of intellect and precision of language has classified it into "that education which prepares for direct self-preservation—that which prepares for indirect self-preservation; that which prepares for parent-hood; that which prepares for citizenship; that which prepares for miscellaneous refinements," and after discussing each essential branch of right education in direct conjunction and comparison with the actual teaching which now obtains, declares without reservation that "what our school courses leave almost entirely out, we thus find to be that which most nearly concerns the business of life." This is sweeping condemnation, but that there is truth in it is evident from the fact that you are here to-day intent upon urging many propositions that grow out of that assertion. Indeed, this increasing conviction has already, within the past few years, forced reluctantly upon the high schools and universities much larger recognition of the claims of the practical world we dwell in, and has introduced the study of the physical and social sciences generally, surplanting to a large extent, at least in primary instruction, the *dead beats* of language, ordinary history and the philosophy of words and phases. Again, as to the modes whereby instruction may best be imparted. It will not be considered amiss, I trust, to say the very rapid establishement which has taken place of normal schools for the preparation of fit teachers themselves, is a confession in so far of the defective work hitherto performed by instructors as such. The cultivation of the powers of observation and consequent thought in our youth, the assimilation of the knowledge that is in books by constant correlation with the world around and the practical illustrations thereby afforded, the recognition of a more natural order in the evolution and development of the growing faculities that shall adapt education to the impulse, enjoyment and capacity of the child, and all this in place of the parrot-like recitation. Chinese memorizing, text-book cramming and disciplines bred of the ease of the master, but repressive altogether of the human nature of the pupil, is what this age demands with potential voice. [Applause.] Indeed, I have sometimes thought that there might be, after all, a profound wisdom in that method related of Old SQUEERS, who first taught his boys to spell stable, and then made them take turns in cleaning the stable, so as to understand what it meant. [Laughter.] It was, perhaps, an exaggerated style of touching practical life all round, and yet it was in every way better than the dreary ritual of verb and adverb now so often the religion of the schools. Education, to be successful, must co-ordinate with a joy and lightness and relishing thirst that shall make every acquisition only the incentive to renewed effort. I would put in a plea, therefore, for crushed childhood that is laced up into the knowledges until there is produced deformity both of mind and body. It was not thus that the high schools of Athens, the Portico and the Academy, taught the men who became the wonder and admiration of all time. It is far otherwise that MILTON, in his grand tractate on education, discoursed how he would endow a band of English youth with all of learning, courtesy and culture. And I have great hope, consequently, that you who realize these facts, in the admirable organization you have instituted, in the zeal that manifests itself in your gathering thus from all parts of the nation, in the surrender of so much of your time and preparation to the improvement of present systems of instruction, will blaze out the roadway that shall lead up to the best possible educational methods hereafter. Upon one of the questions that has long elicited attention, not only in this country but in Europe, that is the relative advantage of classical or mathematical studies. As agencies of mental discipline, one which I see from your programme is to elicit discussion also from yourselves, I have no opinion to express, because I believe that when education conforms itself to a more natural order, the very ideas of subordinating that to any one phase of culture will become totally untenable as sacrificing the end to the mere incident, and that there will be no question left. Upon another that involves the idea of a national compulsory education, a system that contemplates attendance enforced by the government through pains and penalties, I have a most earnest and positive protest to enter. The shortcoming in this respect is perhaps as much due to the defects in the purposes and appliances of early training in the schools, instinctively appreciated by the many, as to any other cause, and when such shall be redressed so that delight shall reign there and a thorough practical usefulness became the transparent outflowering of attendance, there will no need of compulsion remain. The correction for non-attendance should lie, too, with the public mind, and come of something better than a criminal code to be effective. The appetite for information is just as natural in the young child as that for the nourishment of the body or the gratification of the passions, and after you have destroyed that appetite by a false system of stuffing, you will in vain seek to nourish it into health by enforced feeding.

But I have trespassed too largely upon your patience, and touched on matters that were scarcely contemplated when I began, so that it may be feared that you will all think that you have had the rudiments of a lecture where you have deserved rather an ovation. My only purpose, however, has been to assure you that the subject matter of your labors has place in the thought of our community, and that any light you may throw upon the educational problem will be deeply appreciated by our whole people. And now again, ladies and gentlemen, I wish to renew to you assurance of a warm welcome to our State, of the hospitality of our homes, and the fraternity of our feeling. [Applause.]

RESPONSE BY PRESIDENT PICKARD TO GOVERNOR BROWN.

Your Excellency:

In behalf of the ladies and gentlemen gathered in attendance upon the meetings of the National Educational Association, I thank you for your words of welcome. That you have departed from the beaten path of welcoming address and have given us words of counsel and caution is an occasion of thankfullness. It was my fortune, sir, to receive my education in the State of Maine, which for fifty years past has had peculiar relations to the state you so worthily represent. The two states were placed under the same yoke, which for more than thirty years proved a yoke of separation. For all know well the part you have borne in breaking that yoke. To you, sir, in a large measure are we indebted for this opportunity of meeting as sister states, not yoked apart, but hand in hand; not an unwilling pair, but a loving couple. May the union of Maine and Missouri symbolize the sisterly grouping of all our states.

As at home we are now recognized as "school-masters abroad," I am quite sure from what we have already seen and felt in this city and state you will make us believe ourselves school-masters at home. Again, sir, for your words of welcome I thank you.

THE OPENING REMARKS TO THE CONVENTION BY THE PRESIDENT.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Educational Association:

This day finds us gathered under new auspices. Laborers from different parts of a common field, we sit together in the shade at this noon hour to rest and to be refreshed. Each brings something to this common table, the whole making a rich repast. The plain substantials furnished by the common-school men will find a fit desert in the luscious fruits our college friends have brought us. The beauty of flowers with which our table is garnished will make us forget the dryness of the roots our Latin and Greek Professors select as their daily diet. All sciences will be called into requisition, that the food may be well seasoned after the most approved housewifery. Our Normal Professors will direct as to the kind and amount of food suited to the digestive capacity of each, and the Superintendents will see that all things are done discreetly and in order, that no one gorge himself at the expense of others. Brethren and sisters in a common cause, we shall find frequent opportunities during this feast for social chat, for the renewal of old and for the forming of new acquaintances. We are to meet in sections for greater profit, but we are not distinct organizations. We are parts of one great whole with common interests and a common aim.

Two questions press upon us—What is man? How shall he be educated? To the discussion of any topics bearing upon the solution of these questions you are invited. It is not for us to sneer at those, who would have man descended from an animal to whom many of us may have aversion. We must give ourselves to the task of disproving or confirming what men of superior ability have presented for our thought. It is no time for jeering, but for earnest study, for deep thought.

Our work is laid out in Programme. Each hour is filled, and to each participant is assigned a specific time. We are pledged to a prompt discharge of our duties, and to such a courteous regard for the rights of others as will preclude any intrusion upon the time of those who may follow us in the exercises. While no gentleman will feel it right to exceed the time allotted him by the programme it is perhaps hardly necessary to state that none need feel compelled to fill the time allotted provided he has finished what he had to say before its expiration. Thus relieving you of any embarrassment in this regard, and assuring you of my own purpose to abide by the rules laid down for others, I will finish the President's address by proxy and call upon the presiding officers of the several Sections for five minute speeches.

It gives me pleasure as President of the Association to introduce to you those who will preside over the several Sections of this Association, and in doing so I take pleasure in introducing first the President of Kenyon College, Ohio, Mr. ELI T. TAPPAN, to preside over the branch of higher education, and these gentlemen as I introduce them will fill out what is lacking in any part of the President's address. [Applause.]

REMARKS BY PRESIDENT TAPPAN.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

In being called upon by your worthy President to speak in behalf of the Department of Higher Education, I beg leave to correct a slight mistake. I am only a member of the Executive Committee, and the President has called upon me in the absence of the head of this department of education, Prof. CHARLES ELIOT, President of Harvard College.

I am, Mr. President, to speak in behalf of the Department of Higher Education, and in that very expression I am reminded of the fact that we are here to-day as teachers of the United States, recognizing all these varied departments as parts of our general work, and in organizing into several departments we do not mean to be separated. I am sure that it is the feeling of the college men, and all others engaged in the higher education, that that junction shall always be by a conjunction and never by a disjunctive conjunction. [Applause and laughter.] In a word, whatever part of the work we are engaged in, we are all proud of being school-masters, we are proud of our mastery—that mastery which may be gained by the little woman who governed by her mastery of soul, which is as much as that of the largest man who may govern by something that is stronger, but not so great. I am glad to know not merely that all departments of our work are joined together, but to be able to assure those who are not in our profession, that we recognize as parts of the work of the teacher everything that tends to the elevation of the human being.

I beg leave to say here, to his Excellency the Governor of the State of Missouri, that no part of the human being is forgotten in our scheme of education. Above all, we know and feel, as the maxim of our work, that the moral education is the most important thing. Not only do we recognize its importance, but we discuss the methods to carry it out. In the programme of the meeting it appears but once—not because we consider it of little importance, but because the question is not immediately before us for discussion.

Above all, we recognize, as a scientific principle and not merely as a matter of sentiment, that the moral education of every child in the land should be based upon *love.* We have many books upon the subject of moral education. We have one Book in which this principle of love is stated in the clearest and simplest language. This principle is illustrated in this Book by an account of the life, the precepts and the actions of the greatest of all Beings who has walked upon the face of the earth.

Mr. President, I have only to say we shall be glad, as members of the Department of Higher Instruction, to contribute all we can to the success of this National Educational Association. [Applause.]

President Pickard. We have as a representative of the Department of Elementary Education the Hon. A. C. SHORTRIDGE, of Indianapolis, the Vice-President of the Elementary Section, he will address you.

REMARKS OF MR. SHORTRIDGE.

Ladies and Gentlemen:

I am sure you will join with me in regretting very much that the President of the Elementary Department, MR. SHELDON, of Oswego, is not here. We all regret it very much, for certainly he is one of the representatives of elementary education in this country.

I believe all who are to prepare papers for the Elementary Section are present, or have forwarded their papers to the Convention. I expect to hear within a very short time that the only missing one has put in an appearance, so that, as far as the elementary work is concerned—a work in which I am sure you are all greatly interested—so far as that part of the Association is concerned, the work will be well done. Those who are to take part in the discussion on their papers, are generally here, and I congratulate you that the elementary work of this Association will receive the pre-eminence that it should. Not to occupy further time, I hope that those who are interested in this portion of the work will take part in its discussions and proceedings.

President Pickard. The Normal School Section is represented here by the President of that Section, Professor S. H. WHITE of Peoria, Illinois, who will address you.

REMARKS OF PROF. S. H. WHITE.

Ladies and Gentlemen:

It seems to me eminently proper that the Convention should be held in the State of Missouri and city of St. Louis, which have within the past few years established a comprehensive system of common schools—a state which has inaugurated an extensive system of high schools and which has put into actual operation several of those schools, and in the past few days has laid the corner stone of what will be one of the most elegant normal schools in the whole country. It seems to me also eminently proper that this meeting should be held in the city of St. Louis, a city that is known throughout the country for its comprehensive and thorough system of public instruction, a city which contains one of the most celebrated normal schools in the country, and which has recognized one of the advanced ideas which is getting to prevail in the educational world, the equality of man with woman as an educator. [Applause.] The character of the exercises before the Normal Department of this Association has been determined on to some extent by the living questions of the day. Those which have been forced upon the attention of educators by their experience in the normal-school work and by the development of the normal school. The persons who have read papers before the Departments of this Association are, with one or two exceptions, present, or will be represented by others whose attention has been directed especially to the subjects to be considered. In the consideration of these subjects it is hoped that not only will those whose work is especially with these departments of education feel themselves interested and entitled to be present, but that all will feel entitled to be present at any and at all times in the consideration of these important subjects. [Applause.]

President Pickard. Hon. W. D. HENKLE, of Ohio, President of the Section of School Superintendents will address you.

REMARKS OF MR. HENKLE.

I will say that I am glad that the National Educational Association is about to hold its Convention in the city of St. Louis. I am told, in the study of meteorology, that the mercury here sometimes rises as high as 105 degrees. I expected a warm reception, but this is almost too warm. [Laughter.]

In our department we secured the service of Hon. JAMES A. GARFIELD, of Ohio, to deliver an address upon the relation of the national Government to education. I corresponded with Mr. GARFIELD, and saw him, but I regret to say that the address arranged for will not be delivered.

Mr. HENKLE then read the following

LETTER FROM MR. GARFIELD.

HIRAM, OHIO, August 18, 1871.

HON. W. D. HENKLE, COLUMBUS, OHIO:

MY DEAR SIR: I have never yet failed to keep an engagement to make a public address. I must do so now. A few days ago I was compelled to go to Washington, on an errand of mercy for a neighbor, and that, with other unavoidable work that has pressed itself upon me, has made it simply impossible to reach St. Louis at the appointed time and meet my other public engagements. I am sure that I regret this more than you can, and on many accounts; I really desired to consult with the teachers and scholars of that convention on the relations of the general Government to their work, and my pride is wounded that I can never again say that I never failed to keep such an engagement. I beg you to serve me as my next friend in excusing my failure.

Very truly yours,

JAMES A. GARFIELD.

Some announcements were then made, and the President presented an invitation from the Board of Managers of the St. Louis Public Library to visit and use the Library.

Superintendent Hancock moved the appointment of F. H. Raschig as Assistant Treasurer of the Association. Carried.

The Association then adjourned to meet in Sections in the afternoon, and in General Convention at 8 o'clock, P. M.

EVENING SESSION, TUESDAY, AUGUST 22.

Pursuant to adjournment the Association was called to order by the President at 8 o'clock.

Hon. J. E. Dow, of Peoria, Illinois, was elected Secretary *pro tem*, in the absence of Mr. Crosby, called home by the death of his father.

President Pickard announced a Committee on the Nomination of Officers or the ensuing year, consisting of one member from each state represented in the Convention, and also the following Committees:

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

Miss Maltby, Missouri.
J. W. Bulkly, Brooklyn, New York.
John Eaton, Jr., Washington, D. C.
W. D. Williams, Macon, Georgia.
Warren Higby, Ohio.

COMMITTEE ON HONORARY MEMBERS.

J. P. Wickersham, Pensylvania.
Mrs. M. A. Stone, Connecticut.
W. F. Phelps, Minnesota.
Miss D. A. Lathrop, Ohio.
John P. Sullivan, Illinois.

The Hon. John P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, addressed the Association, on the following subject: "A National Compulsory System of Education Impracticable and Un-Amrican."

A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

During the latter part of the last session of Congress, the passage of a bill, the purpose of which was, in the words of its author, Hon. GEORGE F. HOAR, of Massachusetts, "to compel by National authority the establishment of a thorough and efficient system of public instruction throughout the whole country," was vigorously pressed by leading members, and at one time seemed likely to be successful. The discussion of the bill in Congress and the comments upon its subject matter in the press of the country exhibited a public sentiment of considerable strength favorable to some such measure as that contemplated. The defeat of Mr. HOAR's bill will not settle the question. Its further agitation is inevitable; and it well becomes this body of teachers and friends of education, coming as they do from all parts of the Union, to give it due consideration.

In order that we may have the subject before us in its most practical shape, I will present the main provisions of Mr. HOAR's bill. They are substantially as follows:

Section One provides that the President shall appoint in each State, a State Superintendent of National Schools, who shall receive a salary of $3,000 per annum, and hold his office for four years.

Section Two provides that there shall be as many Division Inspectors of National Schools in the State, appointed by the Secretary of the Interior, as there are Congressional Districts, each to receive $2,000 per annum.

Section Three provides that the Division Inspectors' Districts shall be divided by the State Superintendents into school districts of convenient size, in each of which the Secretary of the Interior shall appoint some suitable person to be Local Superintendent of National Schools, and fix his salary at a rate not exceeding three dollars per day for the time he is actually employed in the duties of his office.

Section Four provides that "such number of schools shall be kept in each district as the State Superintendent shall direct," but opportunity is to be afforded to every child between the ages of six and eighteen years to attend school at least six months in the year.

Section Five provides that every Local Superintendent shall select the places for the school houses in his district, and purchase or hire them in the name of the United States; and in case the owners are unwilling to part with them, they are to be seized and taken in about the same way as are locations for forts, lighthouses, etc.

Section Six provides that all the school books used shall be such as are prescribed by the State Superintendent, under the direction of the National Commissioner of Education. They are also to be furnished by these officers to the children in the schools, who are to be charged cost price for them, unless too poor to purchase, when they are to receive them gratuitously.

Section Seven provides that the Local Superintendents shall, with the approbation of the State Superintendents, make contracts for building all school houses and keeping them in proper repair.

Section Eight provides that the Local Superintendents shall employ all teachers and fix their salaries, subject to the approval of the State Superintendents.

Section Nine provides that the National Commissioner of Education shall prescribe forms of register of attendance, conduct, age and other particulars respecting the pupils in each school, and furnish blanks for the same; that all reports shall be made to said National Commissioner through the several State Superintendents, and that, "in the performance of all duties imposed by the Act, the Local Superintendent shall be subject to the directions of the Division Inspector, the Division Inspector to those of the State Superintendents, and the State Superintendents to those of the Commissioner of Education."

Sections Ten, Eleven, Twelve and Thirteen relate to details not affecting the principle of the bill.

Sections Fourteen, Fifteen and Sixteen provide that a direct tax of $50,000,000 shall be levied annually for school purposes in the several States, that it shall be assessed and collected by the same officers and very much in the same way as the Internal revenue is now assessed and collected, and that the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe rules for its disbursement.

Section Nineteen names a day when the Act shall take effect, and, then, in the words of the bill, provides that "Any State may, at its option, in lieu of the tax provided for by this Act, provide for all the children within its borders, between the ages of six and eighteen years, suitable instruction in reading, writing, othography, arithmetic, geography, and the history of the United States. If any State shall before the last-named day, by a resolve of its Legislature, approved by the Governor, engage to make such provision, and shall notify the President of the United States thereof, all future proceedings for appointing the officers provided for herein, or for the assessment or collection of the aforesaid tax within such State, shall be suspended for twelve months from said date. If, at the expiration of said twelve months, it shall be proved to the satisfaction of the President of the United States that there is established in said State a system of common schools which provides reasonably for all children therein who dwell where the population is sufficiently dense to enable schools to be maintained, suitable instruction in the aforesaid branches, no further steps shall be taken for the appointment of officers or the assessment of tax therein; otherwise, he shall proceed to cause said tax to be assessed and said schools to be established within such State forthwith thereafter."

Such is the measure proposed by the friends of the "new departure" in the educational policy of the country. The scheme may well be called "a National System of Compulsory Education." It takes out of the hands of the people all the powers they have heretofore exercised in relation to the education of their children and centralizes them at Washington. Let Mr. HOAR'S bill become a law, and our school-houses will be located, built and furnished, the length of our school terms will be fixed, our text books will be selected, our teachers will be employed and paid, our school taxes will be assessed and collected, without any agency on the part of the people, and by officers in whose election or appointment they have had no voice.

During the discussion in the House of Representatives, it was claimed by Mr. TOWNSEND, a member of Congress from my own state, that "Such a system as is provided by this bill invades no State rights, imposes no obligations on willing States like New England, New York, Pennsylvania and others, takes no money from their coffers to be spent elsewhere, imposes no offices upon them unnecessarily, but only requires negligent and indifferent states to attend to the duties they owe to their own citizens directly and indirectly to the other States." True, the Ninteenth Section of the bill, which I have quoted in full, exempts from its operations the States that may before a certain fixed time have established of themselves systems of common schools providing reasonably well for all the children within their limits; but it will be noticed that this exemption is wholly at the option of the President. He has but to express dissatisfaction with the system of schools adopted in any State, and it can be supplanted by the national system. All history proves that powers granted to rulers will be used by them, and human nature is the same in the year 1871 as in the ages that are past, and in the United States of America as in the other countries of the world. Let this national system of compulsory education be adopted, and that moment all State authority in the matter of education, and all authority emanating directly from the people in the exercise of their primary rights of sovereignty in school districts, throughout the whole nation, will be subordinated to the central powers at Washington intrusted with the management of the National Department of Education. The results would be much more than the sacrifice of the rights of States in the matter of education; it would be the overthrow of the rights of the people.

Specifically, the principal objections to the establishment of a national system of compulsory education in this country are the following:

1. *The establishment of such a system is in opposition to the uniform practice of our National Government.* Ours has been an independent nation for nearly a hundred years, and up to the time of the establishment of the Freedman's Bureau, the National Government had left the work of education within their respective jurisdictions entirely to the several States. Till then, it had not, so far as I know, built a single school house or employed a single teacher. It had granted lands for school purposes, but had always left the matter of their disposal to the local authorities. It had distributed money among the several States, which was in some of them preserved as a school fund, but when so preserved it was done in virtue of a policy originating with the States themselves. Nor should the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau be considered a departure from the settled practice of the Government. The Bureau was a war measure, established by the war power, to meet an exigency arising out of the war. When the war ended, that is, when all the rebellious States had been restored to their proper relation to the Government, the Bureau ceased to exist and the educational relations of these States with their other relations assumed their normal condition.

2. *The establishment of such a system is in opposition to the views of the founders of the Republic and the leading statesmen of the Nation.* I have failed to find a single word in the writings of WASHINGTON, ADAMS, JEFFERSON and MADISON, or in those of FRANKLIN, HAMILTON, JAY, JACKSON, WEBSTER, CLAY, VAN BUREN and BENTON that looks towards favoring the policy of establishing a national system of education. No such word, it is believed, can be found in any Presidential message or other great state paper. WASHINGTON uttered noble sentiments in behalf of

general education, and was anxious that a national university should be founded at the national capital. **Adams** was a warm friend of the free schools of his own New England. **Jefferson** was instrumental in establishing the University of Virginia, and sought to build up a system of schools in his native State that would have furnished both elementary and higher education at the public expense to all the youth within her limits; and so, each of the others named and all the leading statesmen of the nation have had, as occasion offered, their good word to say in reference to the importance of education, but no one of them, it is almost certain, ever contemplated taking the power to educate their own children out of the hands of the people and placing it in those of such central authorities as the political necessities of Washington might impose upon them. Is it wise to ignore such facts? Ought we hastily to depart from a policy which has had the sanction of the founders of the Republic and of all our own leading statesmen?

3. *The establishment of such a system is of doubtful constitutionality.* Little is risked in asserting that the Constitution of the United States does not contain a word that was meant to authorize the establishment of a national system of education. Among the powers granted to Congress, there is no mention of such a thing. True, the Constitution was framed, as stated in its Preamble, "in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity," and no one of these ends can be accomplished without a system of popular education; but the Preamble to the Constitution could not have been designed to give authority for kinds of legislation outside of those for which provision was made in the body of the Constitution itself. To decide otherwise is to assume an illogical relationship between the Constitution and its Preamble, a fault of which the men who made it could not have been guilty. Besides, if the objects of the Constitution as expressed in the Preamble are not limited to those for which provision is made in the body of it, they have no limitation whatever, and the door is open for Congressional Legislation upon all subjects; and few, I take it, are prepared to advocate the complete overthrow of our State and local governments.

The friends of a national system of education have argued that inasmuch as the Constitution provides that "The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government," and inasmuch as a republican form of government cannot be maintained by an ignorant people, it follows that the General Government should establish systems of schools in States where they are needed. If through ignorance or any other cause one of the States should attempt to change its form of government, the Constitution makes it the duty of the United States to interfere; but such interference cannot lawfully take place until the fact of the change becomes apparent. To guarantee a republican form of government to a State is one thing, to enact all the laws necessary to preserve such a form of government is quite another, the latter being a duty which under our political system can be performed only by the States or by the people.

That construction of the Constitution, therefore, which finds in it a provision for the establishment of a national system of education is a forced and unwarrented one. No writer in the "Federalist," no one of the leading commentators or expounders of the Constitution, none of our great statesmen have given the least authority for such a construction; and it is exceedingly unsafe to base upon it a system of schools which must educate ten millions of children at an annual expense of one hundred millions of dollars.

4. *The establishment of such a system is in opposition to a sound republican political philosophy.* This is the essential point. The practice of our General Government may have been wrong, the opinions of our great statesmen may have been mistaken, wise provisions may have been omitted from the Constitution of the nation; but if it can be shown that the establishment of a national system of education is in opposition to a sound, republican political philosophy, nothing further can be said in its favor.

A republican form of government is ideally the best form. A nation governed by all of its citizens, each of whom is himself self-governed, occupies a much higher plane than a nation governed by one man or a few men while all the rest are forced into positions of inferiority. A republic is a body with all its members healthy and harmoniously developed; a monarchy is a body with many of them weak and disproportioned. In a republic all are kings with a divine right to rule; in a monarchy there is but one thus endowed. A republican form of government is the kind toward which all highly civilized countries gravitate and which the most highly civilized ones adopt. He is a poor student of history who does not see in all the mutations of nations the various other forms of government ripening into democracies.

If we are to maintain a republic in this country we must govern it strictly in accordance with republican principles, and republican principles require power to be kept as close as possible to the people. A despotism aims to govern wholly by an application of mechanical force. It rules by fear. Its arbitrary will is law. Men are kept in the places assigned them by outward constraint. On the contrary, a republic aims to govern by developing in each individual the capability of self-government. It rules by self-imposed law. Its will is the voice of the people. Each citizen knows his place and keeps it from an inward principle.

A school is an epitome of a nation. All kinds of government are exemplified therein on a small scale. In the management of a school, it will be acknowledged on all hands, it is better for a teacher to induce his pupils to do their own work than to do it for them. It will be agreed also that a teacher who trains his pupils to govern themselves, to be a law unto themselves, does infinitely more for them than one who keeps them in subjection by threats and punishment. Indeed, the highest aim of school discipline is to enable the pupil to become master of himself; and such discipline is defective just in proportion as it fails to accomplish this aim. The whole economy of the school should be such as to make it a self-working, self-governing body. No teaching is worthy of the name that does not develop, strengthen, give self-control and practical efficiency. Mere mechanical force as a governing principle in school tyrannizes over the child, and weakens, cramps and dwarfs his whole being. Coming from under such discipline, he is not a man in the true sense of manhood, but an instrument to be used—a thing.

The principles of school government thus announced and concurred in by all thinking teachers are thought to be no less applicable to the government of the nation than to that of the school. Our rulers would do well to look upon the nation at large as a great school, and the people as pupils. It is better for the people to make their own laws than to have laws made for them. It is better for the people to attend to their own affairs than to have them attended to by others. It is better to have the people be good citizens of their own accord than to have them obey obnoxious commands by force. The high art of statesmanship consists in making a self-working, self-governing people. The nation is best governed that is least governed.

The most vital part of our political organization is the government of the town and the township. With this shielded from danger, the republic is forever safe.

A characteristic feature of the Teutonic race, as distinguished from other races, is the tenacity with which it clings throughout all the vicissitudes of fortune to the principle of local self-government. This trait of character was noticed by CÆSAR and TACITUS, in their description of the Germanic tribes, many centuries ago, and it lives to-day even under the huge political structure erected over it by the Emperor WILLIAM and his predecessors. The Saxons bore it with them in their migration to the British isles, and their descendants planted it deep in the constitution of their adopted country, and have bravely vindicated it a thousand times in forum and field against all enemies who ventured to attack it. The *Mayflower* and the *Welcome* brought the precious freight to this country, and it became the central principle of our political life. In truth, as says the noble Spanish Republican, CASTELAR, "The history of the muncipality is the history of liberty." It is from this principle of local independence that our whole system of government derives its sustenance and its strength. Without it, this system would be a dry form, a lifeless trunk, a mere piece of dead mechanism. Cut the system loose from this nourishing root, and the republic dies. Take away from it this blood that circulates through its veins, these nerves that unite it into one living body, make it an organism, and it becomes a grinning, ghastly skeleton, with muscles of strings and joints of wire. Palsied be the hand that would work purposely this ruin!

In the light of what has now been said, is it in accordance with the dictates of a sound, republican political philosophy to take completely out of the hands of the people the management of their school affairs and place it in the hands of officers appointed by the Government at Washington? With all due respect to Mr. HOAR, whom I know to be a most able and excellent gentleman and a warm friend of universal education, and those who act with him on this question, the truth bids me say that this system of national education is fraught with great danger to our republican institutions. It is just such a measure as the most despotic ruler on earth might favor. It throws the whole matter of the education of the people into the arena of politics, wreaking as it does with selfishness, intrigue and corruption. It entrusts to officers whose mode of discharging their duties must necessarily be distant and mechanical, powers heretofore considered as rights sacredly belonging to the parents of our children. In short, it strikes down at a single blow all the school organizations which the *people* have built up for themselves, and substitutes for the living mothers who gave them birth and have watched over their childhood with so much care, the cold, formal attentions of hired government wet-nurses. The system *is* un-American and impracticable.

But in justice to Mr. HOAR, it must be said that he acknowledges that the education of the people can, in ordinary circumstances, be best accomplished by the local authorities, and he states that the object of his bill "is not to supersede, but to stimulate, compel, and supplement action by the State." To speak more plainly, his aim is not to disturb the educational systems in States like

Massachusetts, Pennsylvania or Missouri, although, as has been shown, the passage of his bill would most likely do so; but to compel the States that have them not either to adopt such systems themselves or to accept them at the hands of the General Government. The following extracts from his speeches on the floor of Congress in favor of the bill will put the matter in its true light:

"Congress must require a good and universal system of common-school education in those States which do not provide it. That is the instant, pressing necessity. The old slave-masters, whose slaves are set free, by a new conspiracy against liberty, would deny them education. Evidence too voluminous for repetition here crowds upon Congress from all parts of the States lately in rebellion that the warfare heretofore made upon the physical liberty of the laboring man is hereafter to be made upon his intellectual liberty. Slavery, foiled in its attempt to destroy the life of the nation, reappearing in a new form now seeks to put out its eyes.

"In the sixteen southern States, counting West Virginia and Virginia separately, there were, according to the census of 1860, 1,387,948 persons of school age reported as attending school, against 3,238,586 receiving no kind of instruction whatever. Now, it is the opinion of all the best authorities to which I am able to apply that this proportion of illiteracy has been largely increased in the southern States in consequence of the events of the war.

"The Senators of sixteen States and ninety Representatives are to be sent here by the choice, if choice it can be called, of men who are unable to comprehend the Constitution under which they live, unable to read newspapers, unable to read an argument, unable to receive into their minds any of the enlightened knowledge which comes from the capacity to read.

"Unless this national education is practical, unless it is to be accomplished, the tyrant, the despot, the monarch, the slaveholder are right. There is no middle ground between men educated and men enslaved. You have no right to shrink from the fulfillment of the duty you have undertaken, which is to secure to every man within your jurisdiction his full equality before the law and his full and equal share of political power. It is but a mockery to extend to him the ballot-box and then to put out his eyes that he cannot see it."

In order to show that little or nothing is being done in the South to remedy the evil, Mr. HOAR, in justification of his course, had read the following statement concerning public education in the South, obtained from the Bureau of Education:

"I. Delaware: No State supervision, no State normal school, no adequate public-school law, no provision for the education of the colored children.

"II. Maryland: No public schools for colored children except in Baltimore. Only nominal State supervision.

"III. Virginia: Free-school law recently passed, but its workings impeded by want of funds, school houses and qualified teachers; only about one hundred schools in operation at date; no money yet collected, and school tax not available for months.

"IV. West Virginia: Contemplating destruction of the already successful school system.

"V. Kentucky: Recent attempt made by Legislature to cripple system already in operation by reducing the salary of the superintendent, paying no attention to his judicious recommendations; at present the law is substantially the same as before the emancipation, and no colored public schools established. Even the school tax collected from the colored people is used for the support of colored paupers.

"VI. Tennessee: Successfully established school system overthrown, and provisions of the old 'pauper school' law re-established. No normal school.

"VII. North Carolina: School system struggling under hostility of sentiment, inadequacy of means, so that permanence thereof is doubtful.

"VIII. South Carolina: School system moderately successful; bitter hostility manifested; success possible only through continued adherence of the colored population.

"IX. Georgia: School laws till recently same as before the war; new act recently passed and State Superintendent appointed; successful progress hampered on account of want of funds.

"X. Alabama: School system imperfect in many respects, yet had secured an enrolment of 160,000 scholars; future existence of it doubtful.

"XI. Florida: System partly organized; success heretofore limited by inadequate means.

"XII. Mississippi: School law recently enacted, and, notwithstanding bitter hostility, on the road to success; county superintendents appointed, school tax being collected, etc.; hostility to the system confined to the white inhabitants; colored people warm supporters of the system.

"XIII. Arkansas: School system, in spite of white hostility, more successful than in most of the southern States.

"XIV. Louisiana: School system a failure outside of New Orleans, owing to hostility of whites to the provisions for mixed schools.

"XV. Texas: No school system; no school supervision; no adequate legislation; no public schools; bitter hostility in the eastern part of the State."

Without endorsing in full all that is contained in the matter above quoted, two great facts are too patent to be contradicted by anybody; first, that a monstrous degree of ignorance exists in the South; and, second, that no adequate effort is being made by the local authorities to remove it. Admitting that ignorance is an evil that saps the very foundation of a republic, and that it threatens in the sections named the destruction of our free institutions, does it follow that the General Government must establish a national system of compulsory education in order to find a remedy for it? I think not.

When certain States seceded from the Union, the General Government did right in exerting all its powers to coerce them back to allegiance. The Constitution gave it the right; but if this had not been the case, the right could have been found among the rights which must be assumed by every constitution—*the right to exist.*

When the war ended, and the rebellious States sought restoration to the Union, among the constitutions prescribed should have been one requiring each of them to provide a system of universal education. The right to have done so at that time is just as clear as the right to crush the rebellion itself. The blunder is a serious and may prove a fatal one.

But the States have now all been restored to their proper places in the Union. Peace reigns throughout the whole land. The Government has laid aside its war powers with its war weapons, and now rules by civil, not by military law. The States are once more the equals of one another in the federal compact. South

Carolina and Texas stand in relation to the General Government on precisely the same footing as Ohio and Illinois. The estranged wife has been taken back to the husband's bosom and has the right to all a wife's prerogatives. Laws that are acknowledged to be unconstitutional and impolitic in one part of the Union must be recognized as unconstitutional and impolitic in all parts of it. Above all, the great principles that constitute the foundation of our free institutions must be held sacred everywhere. Any departure from them, even for a purpose so good as that of educating the people, will most certainly prove disastrous. Let short-sighted statesmanship remember that as this nation could not exist one half free and the other half slave, so it cannot exist one half a republic and the other half a despotism.

For these reasons no act establishing a national system of compulsory education should be passed, even if limited in its practical application to the States of the South.

Is there, then, no remedy for the evils of this ignorance? Are the blind millions of the south to receive no sight? Can a Republic live among a people more than one half of whose citizens are unable to read or write? Should the General Government stand by with folded arms and indifferent look while the disease of ignorance, more dreadful than war itself, eats away, inch by inch, the very vitals of the nation, rendering death inevitable?

What shall be done? The question of providing systems of education in the South is a very difficult one. The population in the country districts is generally thin and scattered, the people are mostly poor, the wealthy as a class are opposed to common schools; and, in most places, the white race is averse to having their children educated in the same schools with the black, and, in many, it is almost impracticable to establish separate schools for the children of the two races. Considering these difficulties and considering the social disruption and general demoralization occasioned by the war, reasonably good success has attended the work of education in the South during the last five years. Every State in the South has now in operation a common-school system, and some of them have very good ones. Taxes have been levied and collected in all of them, school houses have been built, superintendents and teachers have been employed, and hundreds of thousands of children have been gathered into schools. True, this is but a beginning, a small beginning, if you will; but it exhibits the great fact that there is still life in the body politic—life, or all the indications are deceptive, with recuperative powers sufficiently vigorous, under good nursing, to completely restore it to health. In view of this state of things, let the General Government, instead of undertaking to force a compulsory educational system upon an unwilling people, judiciously aid them in the work they are now doing for themselves, with appropriations of money or grants of land. The chief obstacle in the way of the success of the systems of education now established in the South, as stated in the reports of the superintendents of the several States, is a want of funds. It would be wise economy and good policy every way for the United States to aid in supplying this want. Let help be given to those who will help themselves. Five millions of dollars per annum granted by the General Government for school purposes, can be made to bring forth ten millions of dollars per annum in the several States for the same purposes; and with the needed funds, a system of schools can be built up for the people by the people. The Peabody benefaction and the contributions of the benevolent of the North have been made to produce wondrous results administered in this way. Such a system would be in accordance with our political institutions, self-made and self-governed. It would not be a tree, sapless and fruitless, because its roots do not penetrate the soil where it stands. It would not be a house built over the heads of the people, but ill-suited to their condition. It would be a living organism, growing with the growth of the people,—a home, built, adorned, loved, protected by those who live and are happy in it.

I am satisfied that the question most deeply affecting the interests of this country to-day is the question of the education of our whole people without regard to race, class, color or condition. Measured by its relation to the very existence of the Government, the questions of tariffs, and taxes, and banks and rail-roads sink into comparative insignificance. To say that "we must educate or we perish" is no exaggeration. But the great work cannot go on wisely or in accordance with republican principles by centralizing educational power at the seat of our respective State Governments or at Washington. The power of educating their own children must be left in the hands of the people, and the duty of those in authority everywhere should be to give them light, evoke their strength, guide their efforts, and cheer them on in the noblest work God has left to be done by human hands. Legislate away, if you will, all other of the dearest rights and privileges of the people; but let no sacrilegious hand ever venture to take from under the care of their natural protectors the only household gods of American homes—our boys and our girls.

The discussion of Mr. WICKERSHAM's paper was deferred until the following evening.

AFTERNOON SESSION, WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 23.

The General Association was called to order by the President at two o'clock, and after some announcements were made, the following subject was discussed:

"How Far May the State Provide for the Education of her Children at Public Cost?"

Hon. Newton Bateman opened the discussion in the paper which follows:

HOW FAR MAY THE STATE PROVIDE FOR THE EDUCATION OF HER CHILDREN AT PUBLIC COST?

"How far may the State provide for the education of her children at public cost?"

The question as it reads, is not hard to answer. A State "may" provide for the education of its youth, so far, and only so far, as its common-school laws, fairly interpreted, will permit. School officers may not transcend the prescribed limits, whatever they may be.

But if I may consider the inquiry as tantamount to this: How far *should* the State assume the work of education at public cost? in this form the question goes directly down to the fundamental principles of civil government—to the bed-rock of political science. It confronts us at once with the questions: What is a State? Of what materials constructed? How constructed, and how put in the way of surest and healthiest growth and development? If there is political wisdom in the words of the poet—if

"*Men*, who their duties know
But know their rights; and knowing dare maintain."

"If *these* constitute a State;" then, have we a safe criterion at the outset of this discussion. We have only to ask, What and how much education is needful to make such *men* as are thus declared to constitute a State, and how much of this should the State itself provide? The needs of the State, as such, are the just measure of its obligations in this matter; and these needs will be many or few, great or small, according to the nature of our conception of what the State should be. *Our* conception of it cannot be other or less than that of a free republican commonwealth, in which the agency of all is the means, and the happiness of all is the object of government. As there is no liberty without law—no justice without a supreme rule of right—such a commonwealth is grounded, of necessity, first, upon those universal and immutable maxims of truth and right which underlie the thought of Christendom; and second, upon a clear translation of those fundamental maxims into the forms of written constitutions and laws. These must be understood, to be of any worth in the maintenance of the State—understood by *all*, to be of highest worth, of absolute saving power to the State. But how can they be understood except they be read? How understood by all, except read by all?

Here, then, begins the duty, and of course the right and power, of the State in the matter of public education; upon this broad foundation abides, and will ever abide, the initial prerogatives of a commonwealth in respect to the instruction of its people. It must teach its children to read. It must see that this key to almost all acquisition (ability to read), is in the hands of all its youth. It is a primal necessity of its organic life, viewed from the stand-point of political philosophy and of history. And as the achievement of this object is vital to the State, and therefore cannot be left to the caprices and contingencies of individuals, or even of associated effort and enterprise, the State itself must undertake and carry on the work. It is too gigantic for private capital; too momentous for the mischances of private judgment. The commonwealth, in its strong and benign sovereignty, must stretch forth its arm and do this thing.

Hence, the common district school, wherein a knowledge of the orthography, and of the reading and writing of the vernacular language of the country is the principal thing, to which are added the science and art of calculation, and the few other rudimentary branches properly related to the central study, and usually included in the common district schools of our country. Up to this point there is no essential difference of opinion, that I know of, among those who believe in public education at all. Thus much, it is conceded, the State can and should do for the education of her children, at public cost. But, while what has now been said does not touch the really debatable portion of the field involved in the question, we are to discuss, it does, I think, throw some light upon it. Indeed, if there is any clue to guide us through, and out of the mazes of vagueness and uncertainty in respect to this matter, it must be found, it seems to me, in the application of the admitted and established principles already referred to. The State provides for all, at public cost, the rudiments of an English education, because it is to her interest to do so; because so much, at least, of knowledge is essential to the welfare, if not to the existence, in the long run, of a popular form of government; and because experience proves that such provision cannot safely be left to the voluntary action of the individual citizen. By parity of reasoning, the claims of public high schools to a settled place in the educational provisions of the State, are also established.

The commonwealth *needs*, through all her manifold industries and enterprises, many thousands of persons who have more than the rudiments of knowledge. The supply of persons of such advanced culture, through the private institutions of the country, is not equal to the public need, and hence the State should interpose to supplement the work. The same may be said, with even greater truth and emphasis, of that profounder learning, that higher and wider culture, which it is the province of the university to bestow. The loss which nearly or quite all the commonwealths in this republic sustain, because so few of their young men are qualified to act as leaders in the discovery, development and utilization of their wonderful natural resources, and in lamping the people onward and upward towards a worthier and grander civilization, is, I believe, simply incalculable.

The amount of latent and dormant power; of wealth-discovering and wealth-producing energy; of beauty-loving and beauty-inspiring taste and skill, that lie concealed and slumbering in the brains and hearts and hands of the keen, shrewd, capable, but untutored millions of our youth, is beyond computation. Now, over all this unreclaimed but magnificent intellectual and moral territory, over all these minds and souls and bodies, with their untold possibilities of good, the State has, in my opinion, a sort of *right of eminent domain*, and not only may, but should, exercise it in the interest of her own prosperity and dignity. If he who makes two blades of grass to grow where but one grew before, is justly entitled to the name of public benefactor, of how much greater honor shall he be counted worthy who gives to the world a trained and polished intellect for blind and stupid ignorance? Is not the one blade of grass thereby multiplied an hundred-fold? To do this on the grand scale of the whole body politic, by providing common schools for all, and high schools and universities for as many as desire to enter them, I believe to be the unstrained prerogative and the manifest duty of the State. But, in addition to the argument derived from the nature aud functions of the State as a supreme political corporation, the view that public education should not stop with the common district school, is supported by other considerations:

First—The common schools themselves are the better for the public high schools, and the high schools for the university. The high school is to the elementary, what the upper classes of a graded school are to the lower—a sharp and perpetual incentive to assiduity and effort. I will not say that without the spur of the high school the common schools could not be kept up to a paying standard of excellence, but it is very safe to say that they would deteriorate in spirit and efficiency, even with greatly increased energy and vigilance on the part of the teachers. As quickeners of the common schools, down through all their various gradations, high schools are of very great value.

Second—As to the rights involved: I do not see how the State can logically or equitably limit its provisions to the rudimentary schools. To do so is to stop at precisely the point where, to the poor man, the question of expense obliges him to arrest the further progress of his children. The cost of tuition and accessories, in good private institutions, corresponding in grade to public high schools, is to the masses of persons in indigent circumstances, simply prohibitive; so that to them the public high school is the only means of bestowing upon their children anything more than a mere elementary education. And when we come to the college and university courses, the doors are still more closely barred against them.

The effect of this is to erect and perpetuate those barriers between the affluent and the indigent, which every consideration of justice and of political prudence requires should be removed—to create, in fact, an aristocracy of learning, in addition to that of wealth, which is already the just opprobrium of our country. It seems to say to the children of the poor: "Thus far, but no further. Your utter mental nakedness shall be decently covered with homespun, but the purple and fine linen of culture are not for you. No matter how great your natural abilities, how intense your longings to enter the upper sanctuaries of the temple, you must stay in the basement. Of bread and milk you shall have an abundance, but at the tables of the gods you must not sit." It seems to me that too little is commonly made of this view of the case. By eliminating the high school from the system, the State misses the most precious and princely returns for the bounty already bestowed—it withdraws its hand just as the harvest is ripening for the sickle—remanding to eclipse many and many a youthful intellect just rising to the plane of perpetual day, and of unending growth.

Third—Nor is the luxury of learning, under the free high-school system, a bounty to the poor, bestowed upon them by the rich, as is so confidently asserted. Into every dollar of tax paid by the property owner, has gone a fraction from the brawny arm of the laborer, and from the weary brain of the salaried clerk and manager. This process, whereby capital lays its special burdens upon the poor, upon labor, may not be seen or acknowledged, but it goes on all the time and everywhere, sure as fate, inexorable as death. Tax the wealthy employer to support the high school, and the employe′ must pay a portion of that tax in the form of lower wages, though his own name is not to be found at all on the books of the assessor. When the millionaire's check lifts an invoice of carpets from the custom-house, and an elegant Wilton or Moquette comes to brighten our parlors, do we say that *he* has paid the "duty"? that to that extent the luxury is a *largess* to us? Not so. We know that in the form of "profits" WE have paid the duty for the merchant prince, and a portion of his accumulating wealth besides. So the laborer, one of the factors in the product of human industry, gives to property, everywhere, a large share of its value, pays a part of its taxes, and contributes to the fortune of the capitalist. If in this business, therefore, there is place for gratitude on either side, it is certainly in the hearts of those who, in God's providence, are permitted to accumulate wealth from the sweat and exhaustion of the multitudes to whom the common lot has fallen. And I think we may thank God that there are not a few grand natures, unhardened by prosperity, who rejoice that it is in their power to acknowledge and fulfill their obligations, in some little measure, through the cheap and beneficent agency of free public high schools.

It is still further to be said in this direction, that the poor make greater sacrifices in merely dispensing with the needed services of their children, especially at the age when high-school studies are entered upon, than do the rich in the payment of the heaviest taxes ever imposed upon them. The money value of the services of his sons, which many a poor man cheerfully forgoes in order to give them the benefits of the high school, is often greater than the taxes paid by the rich in cash for the maintenance of such schools. Well do I know what a painful struggle it often is between poverty and parental love before the decision is made. And shall not these people have some of the credit due to those who add to the number of intelligent citizens?

And then the poor who have a little property, pay their share of the taxes. The amount may be small; but in proportion to their means, it is equal to that paid by the wealthiest. But there the analogy ceases. To the rich, the public high school is a matter of comparative indifference; the best private institutions are within their reach. But to the poor, the boon which comes with that pittance of tax, is treasure indeed. Close the public high school, and they are almost wholly without recourse. There is practically no danger that the number of high schools demanded, will increase so rapidly as to alarm the economist and the taxpayers. It is remarkable how steady the ratio remains between the number of high-school pupils and the whole number of scholars, in a given city or state. Despite the exhaustless attractions of the higher walks of learning, and the increased opportunities of pursuing them, the percentage of those who choose to enter them does not materially vary from year to year; taking as a basis the entire enrollment. But the point is that a very large proportion of high-school attendance is clear gain to the cause of learning, and to the country. That is, without the public high school, at least one-half (I believe three-fourths) of those attending, would have stopped with the rudiments; some from indifference, the most from inability to enter private institutions.

Fourth.—There is another consideration bearing upon this question: The effect of public high schools upon the cost of tuition in private schools of like grade, and more especially upon their character and standard of excellence. This influence is very great, in both of those directions; much greater than is generally imagined. In fact, I am not sure that the retention of the public high school might not be successfully argued, as a measure of public economy and utility, on those two grounds alone.

The cost, per capita, of education in the public schools is often criticised, and the smallness of the difference in cost between public and private schools is remarked upon to the disparagement of the former. But abolish the public schools, and note the effect. An immediate and enormous advance of tuition and other expenses would certainly follow. Take away the ubiquitous and gigantic competition of the public schools, and the old monopoly prices would be restored as sure as that human nature will remain unchanged until the Millennium.

But even more potent and imperative has been the effect of public schools, especially public high schools, upon the literary character of private schools of like nominal grade. It has swept through them like a hurricane, blowing the chaff and pretense to the four winds. Every good public high school takes the breath clean out of half the sham academies and select private schools for miles around, and forces the rest of them to "new departures" in scholarship and thoroughness, with all speed. This is a great and positive public benefit—one with which we are all familiar, and which cannot be questioned.

I believe, then, in conclusion, that the question for American statesmen is, not how *little*, but how *much* can the State properly do for the education of its children; that the one thing most precious in the sight of God and of all good men, is the welfare and growth of the immortal mind, and that to secure this, legislatures should go to the verge of their constitutional powers, courts to the limit of liberality of construction, and executives to the extreme of official prerogative.

I believe that an American State may and should supplement the district school with the high school, and the high school with the university, all at the public cost; exhibiting to the world the noblest fruitage of the century—a model free-school system. And when at the head of the long line of educational forces there stands, as sooner or later there surely will stand, a great National University, fitly symbolizing the culture, refinement and dignity of the Great Republic, then will our system of public education be indeed complete—*totus teres atque rotundus.*

At the conclusion of Mr. Bateman's Address, Hon. William T. Harris, Superintendent of Public Instruction of St. Louis, continued the discussion in the following Paper.

ADDRESS OF MR. HARRIS.

Ladies and Gentlemen—Fellow Educators of the United States:

We are assembled at an epoch in which national reconstruction is epidemic. We ourselves have but lately emerged from a convulsion in which grief and desolation came down upon us all; even the bravest among us have been dismayed at the gigantic price of constitutional liberty, a fabulous cost of blood and treasure. Taught circumspection by bitter experience, we look before and after, and ask ourselves, not without misgivings, "What is all this worth?" "Is a government like ours a permanent thing?" "Does it not cost more than it comes to?"

While we are seriously engaged in repairing our damages, and in attempting to provide safeguards for the future, we are startled by earthquake rumblings in the

East, beyond the Atlantic. The Prussian and Austrian war begins and ends almost while the on-looking nations of the earth hold their breath in the first suspense. "Is it accident, or self-assured purpose, that performs the new miracle in war?" While the world is pondering this question, and looking at the threatening aspect of affairs in Southern Europe, France gets impatient, and will probe the mystery for herself. "If the peasant among the Alps shout aloud, or clap his hands, the mountains answer with an avalanche." When Louis Napoleon shook his mailed hand at the new portent beyond the Rhine, united Germany answered with a land-slide of armed men. The end is not yet. France is not yet excavated, like Pompeii, from her ruins. Meanwhile, in the East the holy German empire, long since inurned and its bones canonized, whose ghost only haunted the unquiet dreams of the Frankfort citizens on the Main, has revisited the world of solid reality, and sits under a spiked helmet. Out of the near future, what new phenomenon will arise, or what resurrection of the buried past will come to sight? Shall it be the democracy of Europe, or the firm establishment of monarchy and obligarchy? Let him who doubts look at the forges and see what manner of weapons are in process of manufacture for the civilization now on its advent: popular education in Italy; popular education and extension of the ballot all over England; popular education the corner-stone of resurgent France; popular education for the past generation throughout Germany now seen to be the bulwark of the invincible might of Prussia! The hand on the dial now points to the avatar of democracy, and no one in Europe misreads the time of the night. "Unless we educate the people, and place in their hands the directing power in continually increasing extent, the sceptre drops from our national hand, and we approach the brink of national death." This is seen alike by the king on the throne and by the people at their daily toil.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

It was clear that this conviction gathered strength, and had become organized into the policy of the State, when we read three years ago in the report of the United States Commissioner, Dr. HOYT, of the immense efforts made all over Europe to found a system of industrial education. The democratic idea of civilization sends forward as its advance guard the legions of productive industry, and covers its flanks with all-powerful engines of intercommunication—the railroad, the steamship, the telegraph.

But not by such means can the monarchical idea be preserved and defended much longer. Man will not submit to be educated simply as a director of machines and instrumentalities of industry. He soon aspires to direct himself and be self governed. To be sure there is a long step from the mere hand laborer, the one who turns a crank or carries a hod, the galley-slave who works chained to his oar—there is a long step from the mere physical laborer to the director of a machine: to the engineer, the overseer of a loom, or the manager of a telegraph; the former is all hands; his own brain even is a mere hand governed by the brain of another who directs him. But when directive power develops so far as to direct and govern machine labor, nay, even when it is so far cultured as to reach the principles of natural science and be capable of applying these in mechanic inventions, even then it is not at its summit of realization. It will stop at nothing short of the spiritual culture that makes it alike directive and governing in the sphere of mind, the realm of social, moral and intellectual existence.

If the monarchies of Europe think to put off the people with mere polytechnic and industrial education they will find that they have fostered a directive power that will grope for and find the helm of the state, and then attempt to direct the administration of government. The mistake will then become visible. For the people must have a universal education, fitting them for the highest as well as the lowest. Human instruments, whether mere hod-carriers or locomotive engineers, will not stay contentedly as *instruments;* they aspire to transcend their hard limits, be they ever so near or never so far off. The higher already, the greater the aspiration. Blind aspiration, from which enlightenment is carefully shut out, leads to July revolutions and reigns of terror; over the ashes of the burnt-out volcano of popular phrensy marches Napoleonic imperialism with cold unsympathetic step toward the return of Bourbonism and absolutism.

Not only mechanical directive power shall be taught in the people's schools, but also spiritual directive power. The London snobbery that patronizingly talks of the education of the lower "*clahsses*" does not know that the industrial civilization it affects to admire is an instrument that only Democracy can wield. Leave out the humanities from that education and you leave out the culture that can guide its course, and communism and socialism and abstract theories will find their way quickly into the heads of the laboring classes. No merely prescriptive education on the part of the church or the school can prevent the people's mind from being fly-blown with crazy political and social theories, destructive to all sound growth. Not merely natural philosophy, chemistry, mathematics and biology must be studies, but likewise the science of society and the state, of art, religion and philosophy, in all their phases. The great educators of the race—Homer, Dante, Shakespeare and Goethe, Plato, Aristotle, Leibnitz and Newton—these must be made accessible to the *people.* Each child must be waited on by the institutions of man and invited to see the spectacle spread out before him from the lofty summit of human civilization; his human brothers that have added a cubit to the world's stature by their heroic labors, must be pointed out to him; the methods and results of the attainment of their ends must be revealed to him; noblest aspiration and earnest, self-sacrificing endeavor must be imparted to him as the means of achieving his individual destiny. The whole world of the past and present is made, by education, the auxiliary of each man, woman and child.

THE AMERICAN PROBLEM.

From these reflections, for which the aspect of Europe to-day furnishes the occasion, we turn again to our own condition and the confusion attendant upon our own reconstruction. While we look abroad, the course may seem clear, and the way of Providence and the march of events may be made out with no difficulty. When we look at home the very nearness of the complicated details prevents us from getting that clear survey of the whole which is required for the settlement of practical problems. We may seriously ask ourselves the question; How far may the State provide for the education of her children at public cost? We may go so far even as to doubt the right of the State to meddle at all with the subject of education. We may consider it the exclusive business of the family; or of the community; or of the church. Or, granting the right of the State to legislate on the subject of education, we may hold that the public should be taxed only for the education of the poor and indigent. Or, limiting public education in another direction, we may say that it should extend only to the elementary branches, that the State shall not use the wealth of the people to found institutions of higher education.

Whatever phase of the question we adopt or reject, it is clear that we can never rest our convictions on a firm basis, without comprehending thoroughly the nature of the State and hence its limits and prerogatives; the nature of education and its relation to the individual at large and to the State.

CIVIL SOCIETY.

That man is a two-fold being is obvious to all. He exists as an immediate individual, in possession of his body and various instrumental faculties. But he has another existence of far greater importance. He has a reflected existence—what he receives back through recognition of his fellow-men. To hold up or support this reflected existence and give it greater reality than the first or immediate existence, man has institutions—society, the State, and others. As a member of society man owns property; he can realize his will in an external thing or chattel, but only by and with the voluntary consent of his fellow-men. Possession does not become property until this recognition of society is obtained; this recognition has made for itself certain prescribed forms. Property is then a form of man's *reflected* existence. Hence we say it is *conventional.*

It is clear, then, that all the bodily wants of man—food, clothing and shelter—depending as they do upon the ownership of property for their satisfaction, are through this means elevated and spiritualized by the institution of society. They are no longer mere immediate attributes, as *animal* wants, but they are converted into the instruments of realizing man's spiritual or reflected being; he is forced by hunger or cold to combine with his fellow-men and to form a community in which he is to respect their recognition far more than his animal impulses and desires. Thus, too, the institution of the family lifts man above mere sexual passion, and makes him in that respect a *reflected* being, a *rational* being. Civil society is organized for the realization of man's existence as a property owner, so that he shall be a universal or rational essence, and not a mere individual animal, dependent on his mere locality and the season of the year and his unaided might for his physical life. By it each individual commands by his own feeble efforts the resources of the entire globe. The organization of civil society is so perfect that every day's labor of the Missouri wheat-grower affects the price of wheat all over the world. The day-laborer in the streets of this city commands with his meagre wages to that extent a share in the coffee of the distant Indies, the sugar of Louisiana, the tea of China, the drugs of South America, the fruits and grains, the manufactures from all sections of the country.

THE STATE.

But the State has a higher function to perform. In it appear other phases of this reflected or spiritual life of man. In fact the generic existence of man comes in the State to independent and actual realization. It does not exist like civil society as a mere instrument for man's voluntary employment, but it stands over and prescribes to the individual his duties and holds him to account by the infliction of penalties. It asserts the rational or generic existence of man as the substantial, and proclaims man's merely animal existence—his life—to be unessential in comparison with it. Directive power shall proceed from it, and not from the mere individual. The State, even in its most despotic form, remains still the realization of man's reflected being, and to it he owes all that is distinctively human.

The lowest nationality realizes for the individual the possibility of his existence in some form of civil society, so that he shall enter into the combination with his fellow-men and reinforce his feeble might by the strength of the race.

But it is a long way from the lowest nationality to the highest. From an Aztec or a Chinese monarchy to a government like that of England or the United States is an immense step. The difference consists wholly in the amount or degree in which the reflected or generic being of man, that the State embodies, is shared consciously by the individual; in short, in how far the directive power of the State exists in and through the conscious will of the individual. In Africa and the islands of the sea there is scarcely any realization of this reflected being of man. In Asia it exists in its isolated substantiality over against man as individual, and in Europe and America we find the various degrees of its mastery and possession by the individual.

It is therefore clear that the goal of nationality is the complete realization *for* man and *through* man of his *reflected*, *generic*, or rational existence; the development of man as a self-directive or self-determined being. Hence the world-history, is, as the greatest of thinkers states it, the progress of man into the consciousness of freedom.

FUNCTION OF EDUCATION

Now, since man as individual, makes his advent upon this planet as a mere animal, and without the evolution of his second and higher nature, it is clear that he must obtain it by a *process* of growth and culture; this we call education. In this wide compass it is two-fold, and involves, first, practical initiation into the habits and usages and the dexterities of the trades and vocations of life. Secondly, there is theoretical initiation into the consciousness of the directive principles and solvent ideas through which directive power is achieved. It is clear that the final end of all government must be to elevate the individual to this highest participation in his own universal being, and to enable him practically and theoretically to *know himself.*

This idea pervaded men, first as a dim feeling, a prophecy uttered by some poet or saint in a moment of insight; then it got to be a conscious thought, and finally here in America we have set it up as our national idea. We say that we are to be a nation of self-rulers; that our Government is to exist for the individual—all for each and each for all; that the highest possibility of any one of the race shall exist for each of the race, and that accidents of time and place, of birth or wealth, shall not prevail against him. This is our deepest national conviction, and we will all perish sooner than yield this idea.

THE RELATION OF EDUCATION TO PROPERTY.

But then it follows that the naturalness, the accidents of birth and condition, must be made of no avail by means of an education provided for all. and at public expense. The cost to the public is to be recompensed in this wise. Whatever taxation of property is necessary to support a free system of education is a requisition made upon an element or source created by the general recognition of the community. All property is a reflected existence. This taxation for school purposes is directly applied for the culture of the individual, or, in other words, for his initiation into this very reflected being which creates property. It is, therefore, the application of property for its own production and security. Without any of this recognition which education produces, there could be no security of property, and hence no security of life.

The fact that conscious intelligence—directive power—controls the property of the world, is too obvious to need restatement. Again, the possibility of possession of property by all in this country adds new validity to it here; it is more valuable. That you can alienate your real estate makes it property in a complete sense; if it is entailed it is only part property. The free possession of property without feudal liens and tenures—the dead hands of its past owners still clutching the symbol of their reflected being—comes to existence only when a government of all the people, for all the people, and by all the people, prevails, and when it is rendered possible through universal education. Who would own real estate in Turkey? Who would accept a Russian estate on condition that he must live on it and assume its responsibilities? No one of us, I think. The quality of property—its intrinsic value—depends upon the quality of the community who recognize it. The *status* of the reflected being is the *status* of those who reflect it. Property in a refined and cultivated community is raised to a high *potence* of value; in a barbarous community it is not worth the risks incidental to its possession. In proportion as man is educated he sees the substantial character of reflected existence, and this perception creates continually new kinds of property founded on the new recognition: bodiless possessions, "incorporeal hereditaments," that receive their substance from conventional recognition.

Thus not only does the culture of civilization increase the alienability of property, and hence its value, but it develops into property a vast series of relations of the nature of franchises which, in a rude unpolished age are mere rights of the strongest and non-transferable to the common people. Hence property, in the *highest sense*, cannot exist except it be taxed for universal education.

THE STATE MUST EDUCATE.

If we turn, for a moment, to the actual history of nations we shall find public education, in some sort or other, always existing. The only point is to inquire, *in what does the directive power of this people exist?* to find at once where the public money is used for educational purposes. In China, for instance, the schools are supported by the people in their private capacity. But the Government rewards those successfully graduating by its offices. Hence, the money advanced for education is only an investment in public securities.

In *all* countries the military education is at public expense. Where does the support and education of the nobility and royal families come from except from the public? They do no immediate work. *They* are going to *direct* and have *others* obey. But in our country, where each is born to all the rights of mankind without distinction, all must be provided for. Not by *pauper* schools, for that would be to burn into the plastic mind of the youth his misfortune, and he never would outgrow the stigma. Neither is it safe to leave the education of youth to religious zeal or private benevolence; for then inequalities of the most disastrous kind will slip in, and our State find elements heterogeneous to it continually growing up.

The Government of a republic must educate *all* its people, and it must educate them so far that they are able to educate *themselves* in a continued process of culture, extending through life. This implies the existence of *higher institutions of public education.* And these, not so much with the expectation that all will attend them, as that the lower schools, which are more initiatory in their character, and deal with mere elements, depend for their efficiency upon the organization of higher institutions for their direction and control. Without educating in higher institutions the teachers of lower schools, and furthermore without the possibility hovering before the pupils of ascent into the higher schools, there can be no practical effect given to primary schools. The public education must therefore extend through the three grades of culture: 1st, the primary, in which initiation is given into mere elements. 2d, the culture in respect to general relations of the elements; the course of study which involves the digestion and generalization of the isolated facts of primary education. 3d, the university education, wherein elements and relations are subordinated and a knowledge of universals is acquired.

It is, indeed, a great thing to have even one class of society educated. No doubt, all profit by it, even when the education is confined to the few. But in a democracy all must be educated. The interest of property demands it, the interest of the Government demands it. And one generation of well-educated people in a state forces upon all adjacent states the necessity of public education as a mere war measure, as a means of preservation of the state. So also will the existence of one successful democracy force upon the world the adoption of democratic forms of government as the condition of their continued existence. An ignorant people can *be* governed, but only a wise people can *govern itself.*

EDUCATION AND MORALITY.

The question of the morality of popular education demands only a word as we pass on to the close of our discussion.

That education necessarily loosens the hold of mere prescribed rules of morality and religion is true in its negative and elementary aspect. There can be no transition from passive obedience to conscious self-determination except through denial. It is a passing phase, and only a passing phase. But again the state of passive obedience is only a pyramid resting on its apex, and it the most unstable of all rests. The state of conscious insight and conviction is the pyramid on its base, and the most stable of all rests. Passive obedience, mechanical unreason, is utterly non-spiritual existence; a mere windmill with prayers fastened to it, as in Persia, is the symbolic type of it.

When we look closely into this alleged increase of criminality in our day, we find that it rests mainly on the delusive appearence occasioned by the repeating mirror of the press and telegraph. Never before in the history of the world were life and limb so safe as now from the attacks of crime. Crime has indeed ascended from the lower and brutal order—above personal violence in a large measure—and has invaded the realms that belong to man's reflected or second nature. Instead of the violent deed which comes back through the state in sure and swift recoil upon the crimnal, we have more and more *intelligent rascality*, to use the words of the distinguished personage who addressed us yesterday. But we must not forget that in the measure of its intelligence, rascality becomes innocuous. Were it perfectly rational, it were no crime. Its circles are much larger than those of brutal violence, and the suffering it inflicts on humanity far less; neither does it stand in the way of the possibilities of the individual to such an extent as brutal violence. It must be confessed, however, that most of the intelligent rescality escapes its deserved retribution. The statistics of penitentiaries show that a very small percentage of well-educated men are incarcerated. The public schools send very few. Out of the 840 criminals in the penitentiary at Jefferson City, over 200 are negroes who have had no education. Of the remaining 600, there are scarcely a dozen who have a thorough public-school education, and most of those did not acquire it in this country. The average statistics of the United States show that out of the small percentage of the people unable to read and write come about one-third of the criminals, and of the remaining two-thirds only one in a hundred had been educated in the higher branches.

Where all are educated, and directive power exists on every hand, it finds its employment chiefly in building up the wealth of the community. The directive power required every day to manage the large banks of this country, to direct the great railroads, or the manufactories and corporations of various kinds, is infinitely more than that required to direct our Government. The management of the Pacific railroad is as great an affair as the government of a small kingdom. Thus self-directive intelligence makes for itself avenues for employment. Nothing is lost. Directive power finds it easier to secure a competence by industry than by intrigue and rascality.

The discipline of our public schools, wherein punctuality and regularity are enforced and the pupils are continually taught to *suppress mere self-will* and inclination, is the best school of morality. Self-control is the basis of all moral virtues, and industrious and studious habits are the highest qualities we can form in our children.

A free, self-conscious, self-controlled manhood, is to be produced only through universal public education at public cost, and as this is the object of our Government, it is proper for *our* Government to provide this means and at the cost of the people.

At the conclusion of Mr. HARRIS' address, the Chairman of the Committee on an American University, Dr. J. W. HOYT, of Wisconsin, presented the Second Report of that Committee. The Report is as follows:

AN AMERICAN UNIVERSITY.

SECOND REPORT OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

To the National Educational Association:

For the reasons embraced in the records of the Association for the year 1870, the Committee on an American University confined their first report to a concise statement of the offices of a true University, and a brief summary of the advantages to be derived from the establishment of such an institution in the midst of these States.

Without re-opening the discussion upon these branches of the general subject, we deem it proper, in this connection, to remark, that the further consideration of them, with an extensive correspondence, eliciting the opinions of many of the most distinguished educators and statesmen of the country, has had the effect not only to strengthen our conviction of the correctness of the positions there taken, but also to satisfy us that any well-devised scheme for the accomplishment of the object proposed will receive the cordial sympathy and support of the great majority of intelligent and liberal-minded citizens.

Your Committee are also gratified to be able to report a general concurrence, on the part of the eminent men who have expressed their views upon the subject, in those large and liberal ideas of university education which only are adequate to the growing and already pressing demands of our country and times.

It was not deemed important in our first report, nor is it thought to be necessary in this, to mark the details of what the institution should be. They are better left to the wisdom of those who shall be hereafter charged with that responsible duty.

It may be proper, however, to state in general terms:

1. That it should be broad enough to embrace every department of science, literature and the arts, and every real profession.

2. That it should be high enough to supplement the highest existing institutions of the country, and to embrace within its field of instruction the utmost limits of human knowledge.

3. That, in the interest of truth and justice, it should guarantee equal privileges to all duly qualified applicants for admission to its courses of instruction, and equal rights and the largest freedom to all earnest investigators in that domain which lies outside the limits of acknowledged science.

4. That it should be so constituted and established as to command the hearty support of the American people, regardless of section, party or creed.

5. That its material resources should be vast enough to enable it not only to furnish—and that either freely or at nominal cost—the best instruction the world can afford, but also to provide the best known facilities for the work of scientific investigation, together with endowed fellowships and honorary fellowships, open respectively to the most meritorious graduates and to such investiga-

tors, whether native or foreign, as, being candidates therefor, shall have distinguished themselves most in the advancement of knowledge.

6. That it should be so co-ordinated in plan with the other institutions of the country as not only in no way to conflict with them, but, on the contrary, to become at once a potent agency for their improvement and the means of creating a complete, harmonious and efficient system of American education.

With this outline of a great and true University in their minds, your Committee have not deemed it possible that the institution should be so established, endowed and maintained as to enable it to fulfill its mission except with the co-operation of the Citizen, the State, and the General Government.

By means of such co-operation, it may be made national in every important sense, and yet possess all that freedom from undue governmental authority necessary to insure to it a place in the confidence and affection of those who, being naturally opposed to a centralization of power, are inclined to deny to the General Government other powers than those actually and explicitly prescribed in the Constitution of the United States.

The original endowment—which should not be less than the equivalent of ten millions of dollars, and which may properly consist of lands now embraced in the public domain—will need to be furnished by the Government, and Congress must therefore determine the general terms and conditions upon which the institution shall be administered. But proper authorities in the several States may have a voice in its management, as well as in the nomination of candidates for admission to its privileges; and individual citizens and associations of citizens should be cordially invited to endow such departments of instruction, illustration, or investigation, as shall most enlist their sympathies; for however large such original endowment, unless it should greatly exceed the necessities of the present time, supplementary endowments will be in demand, as a necessity of the ever-widening circle of human knowledge.

If there be any friends of education who, desiring the end sought to be attained by the Association, nevertheless regard the idea of a central University as novel, and to be entertained with caution, or who, in their extreme conservatism, are in some doubt as the authority of Congress to endow and establish such an institution, they are respectfully referred—

1. To the proceedings of the Federal Convention which framed the Constitution of the United States; from which it appears that propositions by Messrs. MADISON, PINCKNEY and others to include the power "to establish a University" among the prescribed powers of Congress were set aside solely on the ground that such specifications were "unnecessary," since provisions already embraced in the Constitution, as well as the exclusive power of Congress at the seat of government, "would reach that object."

To the successive recommendations of Presidents WASHINGTON and MADISON, in their messages to Congress, urging "the expediency of establishing a National University."

3. To that remarkable provision in the last will and testament of WASHINGTON, by which, still mindful of the honor of his country and the best good of coming generations, he "gave and bequeathed in perpetuity" five thousand dollars in the shares of the Potomac Company, "towards the endowment of a University to be established within the District of Columbia, under the auspices of the General Government, if that Government should incline to extend a fostering hand towards it."

4. To the several propositions to this end, which at various dates more recent have been urged by many of the most eminent men of the country.

If these opinions of the framers of the Constitution, of the Father of his Country, and of modern statesmen do not convince, there is still the authority of the Supreme Court of the United States for the doctrine that, "there is nothing in the Constitution of the United States, similar to the Articles of Confederation, which excludes incidental or implied powers;" that, "if the end is legitimate, and within the scope of the Constitution, all the means which are appropriate, which are plainly adapted to that end, and which are not prohibited, may constitutionally be employed to carry it into effect;"—a ground upon which many liberal consrtuctionists have been wont to rest with great confidence.

Moreover, the Government has established precedents which may be urged with much force as affording warrant for the exercise of such authority as is proposed.

The common schools of the country, the State universities, the schools of agriculture and the mechanic arts, the Smithsonian Institution and the Department of Education are honorable proofs of the liberal construction which has already been put upon the Constitution in this regard.

The idea of a National University, then, is as old as the nation, has had the fullest sanction of the wisest and best men of succeeding generations, and is in perfect harmony with the policy and practice of the Government.

Assuming now, that the questions of need on the part of the country, and of expediency and power on the part of the Government, have been settled in the affirmative, it remains but to determine the means best calculated to secure the adoption of the most judicious plan for the institution, and to insure the congressional and other aid necessary to the full success of the enterprise.

Where the magnitude of an undertaking is so great, its importance so vital, and the unanimity of all classes and sections so essential, prudence would dictate that each step be taken only after careful deliberation.

On the other hand, it should be borne in mind that the best portions of that public domain, to which we must look for the means of founding the university, are rapidly passing into the hands of great corporations for various internal improvements, and of private speculators, who acquire and hold them chiefly for their own personal aggrandizement; so that any considerable delay on the part of the friends of the proposed institution may place this most natural and feasible source of endowment forever beyond its reach.

In view of these considerations, your Committee have resolved to recommend that there be raised a new and permanent committee of less numbers than the present—say fifteen—yet embracing representatives of the leading professions and interests, as well as of the several geographical divisions of the country, and including the President of this Association, the National Commissioner of Education and the Presidents of the National Academy, the American Scientific Association and the American Social Science Association as ex-officio members, to be known as the National University Committee, and to be charged with the duty of further conducting the enterprise to a successful issue, whether by means of conference and correspondence, or through the agency of a special convention.

With a view to the greater efficiency of said committee, it should be provided that a quite limited number of members thereof should be a quorum for the transaction of business at any regularly-called meeting, and that a majority shall have power to supply such vacancies as may occur by reason of the declination or resignation of any of its members.

A committee of this character would be able, in the first place, to concentrate the best thought of the country upon the various important questions involved in the perfection of a plan for the institution; and secondly, to marshal the strength of the country in systematic and effective support of the measure, when at last formally brought to the attention of Congress.

(Signed)
John W. Hoyt, Wisconsin.
Newton Bateman, Illinois
B. C. Hobbs, Indiana.
A. S. Kissell, Iowa.
P. McVickar, Kansas.
M. A. Newell, Maryland.
W. F. Phelps, Minnesota.
Daniel Read, Missouri.
J. W. Bulkley, New York.
J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
J. M. McKinsley, Nebraska.
A. N. Fisher, Nevada.
A. J. Rickoff, Ohio.
C. L. P. Bancroft, Tennessee.
A. D. Williams, West Virginia.
W. M. Ruffner, Virginia.
Z. Richards, District of Columbia.

The Report was accepted, and on motion, its recommendations were adopted. The appointment of the remaining members of the Committee mentioned in the Report was referred to the President.

Prof. C. C. Rounds, as Chairman of the Committee on Nominations, presented the Report of that Committee, which having been accepted, after some discussion, a motion was adopted instructing the Secretary to cast one ballot for the Association, and the following list of officers were elected for the year 1871-'72.

PRESIDENT.

E. E. White, Columbus, Ohio.

VICE-PRESIDENTS.

Wm. F. Phelps, Minnesota.
Wm. T. Harris, Missouri.
J. H. Jurey, Mississippi.
J. M. McKenzie, Nebraska.
H. C. Harden, Massachusetts.
J. W. Bulkley, New York.
Newton Bateman, Illinois.
W. D. Williams, Georgia.
W. H. McGuffey, Virginia.
Otis Patten, Arkansas.
William Swinton, California.
Alex. Martin, West Virginia.

SECRETARY.	TREASURER.
S. H. WHITE, Peoria, Illinois.	JOHN HANCOCK, Cincinnati, Ohio.

COUNSELORS.

J. P. WICKERSHAM, and C. C. ROUNDS, at Large.

E. CONANT, Vermont.	DUANE DOTY, Michigan.
W. E. SHELDON, Massachusetts.	Miss N. CROPSEY, Indiana.
Mrs. M. A. STONE, Connecticut.	R. EDWARDS, Illinois.
N. A. CALKINS, New York.	Mrs. N. S. ROBERTS, Kentucky.
JOHN S. HART, New Jersey.	J. W. HOYT, Wisconsin.
A. D. WILLIAMS, West Virginia.	A. S. KISSELL, Iowa.
J. T. MCGLOSIE, Maryland.	W. O. HISKEY, Minnesota.
B. MALLON, Georgia.	Miss LUCY J. MALTBY, Missouri.
J. W. BISHOP, Mississippi.	E. E. HENDERSON, Arkansas.
A. L. HAY, Texas.	Miss H. E. CUMMINGS, Nebraska.
W. T. LUCKEY, California.	J. DENISON, Kansas.
H. H. RASCHIG, Ohio.	Mrs. JULIA M. TOUSLEY, Colorado.

JAMES H. HOLMES, District of Columbia.

Hon. John Eaton, Jr., National Commissioner of Education, offered the following resolution, which was adopted.

RESOLVED: That a Committee of one from each State and Territory and one from the District of Columbia be appointed by this Association to take such action as shall seem to them expedient to secure a full presentation of the improvements in American Education, at the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, 1876.

The Association then adjourned till evening, the remainder of the afternoon being devoted to the enjoyment of the hospitality of the city of St. Louis, in an excursion to SHAW'S Botanical Garden.

EVENING SESSION, WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 23.

The Association was called to order by the President.

Mr. Cruttenden, of New York, offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

RESOLVED: That a Committee be appointed by the Chair to draft a plan of bringing reports on the orthoepy and orthography of English words before the Association.

The President announced the following Committee in accordance with the resolution:

D. H. CRUTTENDEN, New York; W. D. HENKLE, Ohio; GEORGE BEARD, Missouri.

REMARKS OF MR. BECKINGTON ON A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

Hon. C. Beckington, of St. Charles, Missouri, said: I rise to say a few words for the defense. I should hardly be willing to advocate or defend such a system as Mr. WICKERSHAM represented Mr. HOAR's to be; and, I think Mr. HOAR himself, if he were here, would not be found sustaining such a system of enormities as was given to this audience last evening.

The President: Will the speaker come forward in front of the audience, that he may be more easily heard?

Mr. Beckington: If it would be equally satisfactory to the Chairman and the audience I would prefer to speak from my place here.

Chairman and several others: We can't hear you from the place where you now are.

Mr. Beckington (taking a position in front of the audience) continued: My understanding of Mr. HOAR's bill differs materially from that given us last evening. The general outline, and the particulars as to officers and salaries are as they were given us. But that bill was never intended to interfere with State systems. It was never intended to supersede or supplant an honest effort to educate the children of a State. Nor was its design that a central despotism at Washington should reach down and take the children from their parents and force them into national schools. The whole design of that bill, as I have read it, was to supply the deficiencies of willful neglect, or indifference on the part of any of the States; and that those States which failed to make any provision for popular education, should, in some measure, be constrained to do it by the General Government. That is the spirit and substance of Mr. HOAR's bill so far as it oversteps State lines, or interferes with local self-government. If the State does its duty, the General Government steps out of the way and keeps out of the way.

What do the opponents of this, or some similar measure propose to do, if a large number of States and Territories allow their children to grow up in ignorance? Shall the safety of republican institutions on this continent be endangered by the prejudice and resulting ignorance which controls a large share of the nation? What shall be done with the mass of ignorance now existing in the several States that spurn popular education? Let us take New Mexico. She is typical. She is a true representative of popular ignorance and opposition to free schools. She votes down the common-school system, almost unanimously, as can be seen by General EATON'S report. Several thousands against, only a few hundreds in its favor. Ignorance universal, vice and crime equally prevalent and most shameless and glaring. What shall be done with States and communities of this order? Leaving them to themselves doesn't enlighten or purify them. We are linked to them: they are a part of this nation. What do the opponents of *some* system of national aid, or national interference, propose for evils so dangerous to all?

Suppose that, in addition to the ignorance now existing in the States north, with fair working systems, still greater ignorance in the South with no systems, the dangerous sentiment of "Manifest Destiny" should prevail and we annex the whole of North America and the outlying islands? Prominent men in both parties now favor this. Then we shall have Mexico and the islands of the Gulf. Shall we absorb and assimilate this mass of ignorance by means of common schools, or shall we be overwhelmed by it? "Manifest Destiny" will give us ten or twelve more States controlled by ignorance, and opposed to the free-school idea. Shall we allow free institutions to go down beneath this cloud of darkness? Wouldn't this be carrying Calhounism a little too far?

Centralization is dangerous; we prefer local self-government: but ignorance is more dangerous, and society has a right to protect itself against it. (Here the ten minutes expired.)

Mr. Wickersham: No one who knows me in the State I came from would charge me with misrepresenting a matter, as has been done in this case. I have fairly represented Mr. HOAR'S bill.

Mr. Beckington: In what I have said I have not intended to charge the gentleman with willful misrepresentation. My words in opening were not so aptly chosen as they might have been. If they have wounded any one, I regret it. Still there is such a thing as telling the truth and yet not telling all of the truth. The gentleman probably knows, as we lawyers know, that there is such a thing as omitting or silently passing over such matters as are unsuited to our case.

Mr. Wickersham: O! I didn't know the gentleman was a lawyer.

Remarks were also made by Messrs. ROLFE, of Chicago; PLATT, of Kansas, and HENDERSON, of Arkansas.

Several persons in the audience calling upon JOHN EATON Jr., National Commissioner of Education, for his views upon a National System of Compulsory Education. General EATON responded by saying that he had not intended to take part in the discussion of this question, which was now before Congress, and upon which so great a diversity of opinion is entertained by the thoughtful educators of the country; but he proceeded to read the following extract from an address recently delivered by himself before the American Institute of Instruction, having a relation to the subject under discussion.

NATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

Perhaps the most signal and wonderful evidence of this progress in results is the replacement of the institution of slavery in a large number of the States of the Union by schools and seminaries of learning. In these schools, introduced at the close of the late war by the charity of the North, and the most wise and Christian action of the Government through the Freedmen's Bureau, opened to all, but attended chiefly by those recently slaves, attendance has increased to hundreds of thousands; and systems of schools for universal education are undertaken by most of the States, in which formerly their instruction was prohibited by most severe penalties. The down-trodden are now the uprising, and higher they are climbing the hill of science, catching perchance at the beginning a letter or figure on the run; classes are now well on in higher mathematics and Latin and Greek, as at Nashville, Atlanta, Charleston, New Orleans; and receiving the college diploma, as at Lincoln University, at the rate of ten a year, and the diploma in Law and Medicine at Howard, while they come forward as teachers by the hundred.

There are instances of noble efforts on the part of those once supporters of the old order of things; we honor them, we point to them, to incite others to overcome their prejudice and folly. Many ex-confederate soldiers are teachers. The enthusiastic and faithful teacher of the colored high school at Petersburg, Virginia, was a member of General LEE's staff. The active State Superintendent of schools in Alabama was a confederate officer, and the able State Superintendent of Virginia was with the South. The Superintendent of Schools in Richmond, an adjutant in that city in their service, is devoting himself to the education of every child of every class with an enthusiasm and faithfulness worthy of all commendation. Petersburg has completed two new school houses on an improved plan, one for white and the other for colored children. Richmond has transformed the large and spacious mansion of the late executive of the confederacy for the accommodation of scholars of the free public schools, and is erecting three new houses for the same purpose. Verily war yields its laurels to the triumphs of peace!

These signal victories over prejudice add a peculiar charm to the progress of American education. Even Virginia, whose colonial governor once boasted she had no free schools, now has opened not far from three thousand.

Among the facts which are forced upon our attention under this notice of the progress of American Education, we find in the array of opposing forces meeting us every here and there, as we have already felt, the fact that the greatest share of ignorance is sectional; three-fourths of the adult ignorant population in 1860 were in the South. How do the lessons we have been reaching aid us in meeting this great outlying difficulty so threatening of evils? On inquiring the cause, one word—"Slavery," formerly answered. Now, opposition to culture there offers various reasons. One says, "We are poor and cannot afford the expense. Portions of our country are sparsely settled and schools are impossible." But free common schools have neither failed in the West on account of sparseness of population, nor have schools failed in inclement Sweden and Norway where they secure the instruction of 97 per cent. of the children. "We have had no experience in the management or the benefit of free common schools as conducted in the North; we do not understand them and do not want them." Another says, "I do not believe my property should be taxed to educate the children of other men." Another says, "The education of the Negro will spoil him as a laborer;" and so on through the catalogue of objections that have been anywhere urged against free common schools. Intelligent men offer them; the private independent institutions of learning now in existence are interested in retaining their patrons and might lose them if free schools were established. The action of the churches in certain cases in their own behalf is opposed to the adequate effort of the state. Much of this opposition is honest, and is so far susceptible of removal by reason and argument.

But there is another manifestation, ignorant, blind, and passionate, guided by the prejudices which have grown up in the darkness of slavery, which is violent in its proscription, burns school houses, whips and murders teachers and school officers. A few have recently settled there who are familiar from experience with free common schools. But they are distrusted and too often despised. Besides, could they have their own way in directing the establishment of systems of education, their views would be as diverse as the systems under which they were instructed, and would date back ten, twenty or more years, when imperfections existed in those systems which have now passed away. Nor is there any medium at hand for the correction of their opinions or for the dissemination of educational information. The literature in regard to the origin and conduct of schools is as a rule wanting, but no effort there should be allowed to fail for want of aid.

And it should not be forgotten that every citizen in the midst of these difficulties and seeking their removal—just so far as he is under obligations to any other citizen or to the nation itself—has a corresponding right to demand co-operation. On the other hand, every citizen, every dollar's worth of property, every State, county and city, bears under the nation a relation to these facts, and yet each, in and of itself, can affect them only by the influence of a distant example, when brought to bear upon them. These difficulties are indeed sectional, and yet they are within the national relation. The charity and philanthropy of the more educated sections can of themselves no more accomplish the needed result than they could have carried on the late war through those glorious organizations the Sanitary and the Christian Commissions, or by the equipment of companies and regiments from private means.

As necessary now as then, the great sentiments of Humanity and Christianity, doing all they may in their own way, should bring into action for this work of preserving liberty, as they did for saving the Union, the national functions, the power of appropriate national laws and administration. In this action is, I believe, the final and comprehensive remedy, so far as it is to be found from without those suffering sections.

National educational organizations sustain a vital relation to these important responsibilities. There is, I am confident, a form and method of action for the

General Government, entirely constitutional, and accordant with our institutions and traditions. In the Department of the Interior, which is specially charged with the control of a variety of domestic affairs, you already have the Office of Education, required to collect and disseminate information on educational subjects and to suggest the best methods and systems. Strengthen this office adequately, give it the means to fulfill this function as occasion shall offer, and untold good will result.

The moral influence of the best work in the North will be disseminated in the South. The inspiration and the arguments so much needed may be supplied. But this is not adequate to the present necessity.

Five years constitute an elementary school generation. Already one in the South has passed into final ignorance since the Government has been at work restoring order. To be sure, General HOWARD did vastly and nobly through the Freedmen's Bureau. But the country feels that the conditions of war have ended.

Some other form of effort must be devised into which the element of pecuniary aid must evidently enter. Many questions might arise about raising the necessary means by tax, but from the earliest days the nation has not questioned the right to use its domain for this purpose. The sale of public lands is now paying into the national Treasury above all expenses a million or a million and a half annually. The General Land Office is also in the Department of the Interior under the same Secretary. Congress has only to enact that the net proceeds of the land sales shall be used in aid of education. A measure involving this principle was advocated in the interest of certain States and carried through Congress by the immortal CLAY and his associates, and vetoed by the President. No such fate would now defeat similar Congressional action. A President and Cabinet of whole-souled devotion to the public welfare would give all their weight in favor of its most efficient execution. What was bestowed could be distributed through the local systems of education, on condition that their privileges were free and universal, and that the sum thus expended be supplemented by required amounts raised by local taxation. Charity has already, through the example of the noble PEABODY and skillful SEARS, shown the wisdom of this course. Shall not all the other citizens of the country equal these in beneficence and wisdom? What home in all the South can fail to speak their names with kindness? What home in all that sunny land, so abandoned to calamity, could fail to come to feel kindly and loyally toward a nation that should do commensurately as nobly for their children? Is not this a sure way to peace, lasting peace? If the funds bestowed by the General Government should be multiplied five or six times by local taxation as are those disbursed by the Peabody trustees, we might anticipate the entire expenditure for schools in those States would reach from five to seven millions annually. How soon this would multiply schools and teachers, improve all that pertains to education, increase wealth, multiply the comforts of life, and inaugurate a prosperity impossible under the conditions of civilization formerly enforced there! Can any citizen, any educator so fail to see the

"Phantom army come,
With never a sound of fife or drum,

Keeping time to a throbbing hum
Of wail and lamentation.
The men whose wasted figures fill
The patriot graves of the nation"—

as to reply, "This is no concern of mine;" while yet, too, the air is thick with the horrors of the Parisian massacres, and there are premonitions of a similar explosion in our own metropolitan city?

All are impatiently waiting for the results of the incoming census. We are permitted to know unofficially an item or two. Of each 1,000 adult persons in New Hampshire in 1860 only 24.6 could not read and write—the highest percentage of intelligence of any State in the Union. Now her total population has decreased nearly 8,000, but the number of adults unable to read and write has at the same time nearly doubled, while there are 17,107 less children attending school.* As a contrast in respect to growth, the population of Kansas has increased 250 per cent. and the number of adults unable to write has increased 600 per cent. From the census of 1860, the total number of pupils in the public and private schools of Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Virginia and West Virginia was 382,604. An approximate statement from the census of 1870 shows the number of pupils in the same States to be 369,635, a decrease of nearly 13,000 in school attendance, while the total population has increased 333,000. Certainly these early whisperings of the new census respecting the present condition of intelligence in the country are not calculated to lull any educator to sleep, even in the most favored sections, however he may ignore his obligations to co-operate in that progressiveness of education which shall make it universal and complete.

Does any individual or section for any cause indulge in indifference or inaction or opposition, the spirit of the progress which we have noted is irrevocably fixed and looks only to final triumph.

This spirit is well illustrated by a declaration said to have been made by JOHN KNOX. Long imprisoned, emaciated with sickness, as the galley in which he was confined lay on the coast between Dundee and St. Andrews, he was asked if he knew the land within sight. He replied:

"Yes, I know it well; for I see the steeple of that place where God first opened my mouth in public to his glory; and I am fully persuaded, how weak soever I now appear, that I shall not depart this life till that my tongue shall glorify his godly name in the same place." And verily so it was.

Education has begun a work for man and God in America, which, whatever fortune may temporarily betide, will yet be accomplished.

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*The census when completed for 1870 showed exactly 7,656 adults who could not write, against 4,898 adults who could not read and write in 1860.

At the suggestion of President PICKARD the Association listened to five-minutes speeches from members representing different States, on the condition and progress of education in their States. Messrs. HANCOCK, of Ohio; SEWALL, of Illinois; MERWIN, of Missouri; NEWALL, of Maryland; BULKLEY, of New York; GILCHRIST, of West Virginia, and WILLIAMS, of Georgia, were severally called upon and gave encouraging statements.

Hon. J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania offered the following resolution which was unanimously adopted.

RESOLVED: That this Association will look with favor upon any plan giving pecuniary aid to the struggling educational systems of the South, and that the General Government may deem judicious.

COMMITTEE ON AN AMERICAN UNIVERSITY.

The President, in accordance with the Report adopted yesterday, announced the following named gentlemen as a Committee on an American University:

Dr. J. W. HOYT, *Chairman*, Madison, Wisconsin.
Dr. THOMAS HILL, Waltham, Mass.
E. L. GODKIN, Esq., New York City.
Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.
Dr. BARNAS SEARS, Stanton, Va.
Col. D. F. BOYD, Baton Rouge, La.
Dr. DANIEL READ, Columbia, Mo.
Prof. WILLIAM F. PHELPS, Winona, Minnesota.
Ex-Gov. A. C. GIBBS, Portland, Oregon.
Hon. NEWTON BATEMAN, Springfield, Illinois.

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS.

Hon. E. E. WHITE, President elect of the National Educational Association, Columbus, Ohio.

Hon. JOHN EATON, Jr., Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

Dr. JOSEPH HENRY, President National Academy of Sciences, Washington, District of Columbia.

Dr. J. LAWRENCE SMITH, President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Louisville, Ky.

Dr. SAMUEL ELIOT, President American Social Science Association.

The Association adjourned to meet at 2. 30, P. M., to-morrow.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 24.

The Association was called to order by President PICKARD.

Mr. Tappan, President of the Department of Higher Instruction, announced the following as the list of officers elected by that Department for the ensuing year:

President.—Dr. MC COSH, Princeton College, New Jersey.
Vice-President.—Dr. DAVID A. WALLACE, Monmouth College, Illinois.
Corresponding Secretary.—President E. T. TAPPAN, Kenyon College, Ohio.
Recording Secretary.—Professor T. H. SAFFORD, Chicago University, Illinois.
Director at Large.—Professor A. M. GOW, Evansville, Indiana.

Hon. A. C. Shortridge announced the officers, elect, of the Department of Elementary Schools, as follows:

President.—Miss DELIA A. LATHROP, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Vice-President.—JAMES JOHONNOT, New York.
Secretary.—L. H. CHENEY, St. Louis, Missouri.

Prof. S. H. White announced the officers of the Department of Normal Schools, as follows:

President.—C. C. ROUNDS, Maine.
Vice-President.—M. A. NEWBY, Indiana.
Secretary.—Miss D. A. LATHROP, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Prof. Thomas Davidson, of St. Louis, then read the following paper on "Pedagogical Bibliography."

PEDAGOGICAL BIBLIOGRAPHY—ITS POSSESSIONS AND WANTS.

INTRODUCTORY.

Before proceeding to read this very dry and uninteresting paper, I must say a word or two in my own defense. Bibliography is a subject very difficult to treat in a short essay. I have done my best to make it lively, with little success, I know. I would only ask of those who may be inclined to blame me, to try to write an essay on the same subject themselves. They will then become aware of the magnitude and difficulties of it, and become very charitable.

Being compelled to give up the idea of presenting anything like a complete Bibliography of Pedagogy, I resolved to give more attention to foreign than to native works—and that for reasons which will be plain to everyone. If, therefore, I have cited a large number of German works, it is because Germany has more pedagogical literature of value than all the rest of the world put together.

With a view to bringing something like order into my paper, I have tried to treat my subject from an historical point of view—a procedure, which, I believe, will justify itself.

Finally, let me say that neither the subject nor its jaw-breaking title are of my choosing.

T. D.

Within the compass of a short paper like the present, it is of course impossible, even had I the necessary ability or erudition, to give a complete list of all the works on pedagogy that have been written in English and other languages, not to say that a mere list of book titles would be very unedifying, and that very little of it could be carried away by my hearers. A properly classified catalogue of pedagogical literature, such as the Germans have published of other branches, would be in the highest degree a valuable work for all earnest teachers; but so long as this does not exist, it may not be unprofitable to call attention to the more prominent works on this subject, and to give some notion of the different principles and tendencies which they represent. I am all the more ready to limit my subject in this manner, in view of the end for which, I do not doubt, I was requested to write this paper. This end was not either to display or to inculcate an erudite acquaintance with all the productions, great and small, good and bad, enduring and ephemeral, of educational literature, but to point out for the benefit of teachers those works, a perusal of which would either widen their views of the aim and scope of education, or afford practical instruction as to methods and measures of imparting knowledge, or do both of these. There are few subjects on which people—even those who have amassed the largest amount of ignorance—are so ready with dogmatic opinions and full-fledged theories as on that of education. There is nothing like vacancy for building castles in. The consequence is that everywhere, and here in America more than any where else, we are flooded with a mass of pedagogical literature in the shape of so-called *Teachers*, *Reviews*, *Journals*, of pamphlets, addresses, speeches, as well as of "Guides" and the like, ninety-nine hundredths of which can have served no good purpose but to rid their authors' brains of a large quantity of perilous cobwebs, or to alleviate a malady known as *cacoethes scribendi.* Our facilities for printing and publishing give us many advantages, but they give us also a few disadvantages.

During the last year, it has been my fortune to pass through my hands almost every educational periodical published in the country, and, what is more, I have actually taken the trouble to read a large number of them. I have this to say as the result, that such a mass of utterly inane, flimsy trash it has not been my ill-luck to meet in any other branch of human knowledge. It is no wonder that, with such contents, they find it hard to subsist, and I can state from actual knowledge, that many of them could not exist at all, were it not for publishers' advertisements, the expense of which is expected to be returned in "puffs," dignified with the title of *Reviews*. There is often a wonderful similarity between the advertising pages and the book notices of many an educational periodical.

I hazard these remarks, not because I think that, universally, pedagogical information stands on the level represented by the mass of these periodicals—that would indeed be an insult to many—but because these convince me that by *far the majority* of teachers have no knowledge that any literature on education exists, except that which takes the form of a school-exhibition essay—a species of literature which is unfortunately becoming only too common, owing to that worst and most pernicious of all school institutions, viz., exhibitions. At any rate, there are few things that would more surely contribute to an elevation of our educational institutions than an extended careful study, by all our teachers, of the really solid literature of pedagogy.

Pedagogy I understand to mean education in its very broadest sense; the literature of pedagogy I understand to include, not only works relating to the science, or philosophy, or methods of education, but all that relates to the history of education, physical, intellectual, and moral, of the human race or its members. It is, indeed, only when we take education in its widest sense, and study it in its history and development, that we arrive at any clear conception of its nature and aim. To understand a thing we must not take it at one particular moment of its development, and attempt an ontological explanation, by mechanical analysis, as the ancients did with language, but we must include in our view its whole history, which is indeed as essential a part of it as its present actuality. There is this broad and clear distinction between the thought of to-day and the thought of former days, that the latter was metaphysical or ontological, the former is scientific and historical. Formerly, when men searched for the origin of a thing, they built bridges of logic upon buttresses of hypothetical premises; to-day, we find that between a thing and its origin there is an objective bridge of development, which alone conducts to the goal. To trace a thing back through all its developments is to know it; and all other knowledge, how profound soever may be the terms in which it is expressed, is vain and fruitless—vain *because* fruitless.

Children in our common schools to-day know more grammar than PLATO and ARISTOTLE, the greatest thinkers of antiquity, did. How easy it is now to distinguish between an article and a preposition, a relative and a conjunction, and yet it took ages of earnest, close thought to discover these same simple distinctions. So in pedagogy. Thousands of things that seem to us clear as noonday, self-demonstrated, it took centuries upon centuries of groping to arrive at, and only he is able to appreciate their value and even their truth, who knows the manner, and can estimate the labor, by which they were attained. There is much less of the revolutionary spirit in the man who knows what it cost to build up present institutions, that in him who sees these only as actualities and things that might have grown out of a social contract, and every man who would accomplish any real progress must stand lovingly and understandingly on the basis of the past, thoroughly acquainted with human nature as it is and was, and the methods by which men have arrived at their present physical, intellectual and moral status.

Those who believe logically in the doctrine of progress are as unwilling to determine the point where it started as to limit its continuation in the future. Who shall dare to place bounds to human perfectibility? But is that at all more presumptuous than to limit the possibilities of progress in the other direction? How low the first of progressive men may have been, who shall tell us? Who shall picture ideal humanity? The doctrine of progress burns up many an old fancy. Be this, however, as it may, one thing is certain, that almost the whole period of human progress in which there has been any conscious education lies within the limits of history. What lies beyond that is becoming clearer and clearer every day.

Strange as it may seem, the beginning of conscious education and the invention of writing are apparently cotemporary. That progress in the one and progress in the other have ever gone hand in hand, none need be reminded. What necessary connection there is between the two we shall not here stop to consider. The fact is enough. That there was much unconscious education, particularly of a moral kind, long before the invention of writing, need not be questioned. With that, however, at present we have nothing to do. Limiting conscious education backward to the time when writing—I do not mean phonetic characters—was invented, we shall find the history of pedagogy readily divisible into three great periods, which we may call (1) the childhood, (2) the youth, (3) the manhood of education. These we find realized in different longitudes and different latitudes.

It is unquestionable that every people has to pass through childhood before it arrives at youth, and youth before it arrives at manhood; but it is not so true that every people that has a childhood has also a youth or a manhood. Some peoples grow old as children, some as youths.

Of all now-existing civilizations the Chinese is, in all probability, the oldest. It certainly dates from a very remote antiquity. And yet the Chinese have never risen beyond the condition of childhood. They are educated to behave as obedient children in the family of the Emperor. Obedience and decorum are the alpha and omega of their instruction. Their learning is, from beginning to end, a simple committing to memory of the wisdom of their ancestors, no progress or addition to the already existing sum of knowledge being attempted or deemed desirable. Stability is the Chinaman's ideal. Yet perhaps in no country under the sun is so much attention paid to education, and so much honor paid to educated men as in China. To learning, and learning alone, are all dignities and offices open. Chinese aristocracy is an aristocracy of learning. In no country, consequently, has so much been written upon the subject of education. The pedagogical literature of China is indeed enormous, but very little of it is accessible to us. An idea of its general scope and tendency will be best obtained from some German works on pedagogy which I shall have occasion to mention afterwards, particularly in SCHMIDT's *Geschichte der Pædagogik*, KELLNER's *Erziehungsgeschichte*, THAULOW's Selections from HEGEL, and ROZENKRANTZ's *Pædagogik als System*. Many remarkable hints upon moral education will be found in Dr. LEGGE's translation of Confucius.

Chinese education is calculated entirely with a view to this life. At the very antipodes of it stands the education of India, which looks solely to the life to come. A nation of dreamers, to whom all that to others seems real, is but the baseless fabric of a vision, while what seems to others the work of the phantasy is to them the only reality, they live with no other aim than to rid themselves of the trammels of flesh and sense, and return into the bosom of deity whence they sprang. Yet their education is very similar in method to that of the Chinese. It is a mere committing to memory of ancient wisdom, whose basis is the *Veda*. An account of Hindoo education will be found in the works I have already mentioned, and much valuable information in regard to its scope will be found in MAX MULLER's "History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature," and in several of the same author's "Chips from a German Workshop."

Closely connected with India, both in race and mode of thought, was Persia, which, however, I need not stop to notice, as it does not, any more than India or China, stand in any organic connection with our civilization. India does not stand on the shoulders of China, nor Persia on those of India. One ancient work upon Persian education, though fictitious, is highly deserving of perusal, viz., XENOPHON's "Cyropœdia," and considerable information in regard to the state of education in modern Persia and the adjoining regions is to be found in a French work by the Comte de GOBINEAU, *Les Religions et les Philosophies de l' Asie Centrale.* But all these countries, as well as Egypt, Assyria, and Farther India, have far less interest for us than those countries which have contributed directly to our modern civilization. It is to Greece and Palestine that we have to look for the beginning of our educational system, the basis of that progress and intellectual development whose goal we do not yet see. Of education in ancient Palestine we know only what can be gleaned from the Hebrew writers, whose works are contained in the Old Testament, and indeed Judaic Palestine cannot be said to have contributed anything directly to our education. What we owe to it, comes to us through the medium of Christianity, which struck into the current of European civilization at a comparatively late period of its development, making a new era and transforming education, as it did everything else. Thus it appears that in tracing the history of our education, with a view to understanding it, we have to begin with Greece. There, for the first time in the world's history, on the border between East and West, between the regions looking to the past and those looking to the future, man becomes, in the true sense of the term, a self-conscious being, conscious of free personality. This consciousness lies at the basis of all civilization, and hence of all true education. That the Greek race had passed through all the stages of savagery, barbarism and intellectual childhood, before the days when we have any record of them, we need not doubt. They were still children, though very hopeful ones, in the days when HOMER sang. Letters, in all probability, were not known in Greece in his time. In the closely following centuries, however, writing became common, and, shortly after the dawn of real history, we find the dreams of childhood passing away. Between man and nature there appears a rift which gradually widens into a gulf—a fathomless abyss. Man stands over against nature and feels dimly what it will take centuries to bring to expression—that he is not of this world. He is a distinct, subjective personality. The most interesting work I know upon this subject is an essay by Dr. STEINTHAL, *Der Durchbruch der subjektiven Personlichkeit bei den Griechen*, in the *Zeitschrift fur Volkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenchaft*, vol. ii. From THALES and the rest of the so-called Hylozoic philosophers of Asia Minor, from PYTHAGORAS and the Eleaics in Magna Graecia, from EMPEDOCLES in Sicily, the various currents of Greek thought close and mingle in the much-abused Sophists, whose existence, if not their particular views, was logical enough. If they were not good men, they were very shrewd ones, wiser than all that had gone before them. They drove the principles of knowledge, which they found current, to their legitimate conclusions, and if these proved false, it was not their fault. They fostered education, exercised the intellect, imparted freedom in the use of language, and made a SOCRATES necessary and possible. Just as KANT would not have been possible but for HUME, so SOCRATES would not have been possible without the Sophists. What we know of them is derived mainly from the works of PLATO, XENOPHON and ARISTOTLE. Of the production of the Sophists themselves only a few fragments remain, which may be found in MULLACH'S *Philosophorum Græcorum Fragmenta*, vol. i. The works of PLATO contained much that may be termed pedagogical literature. A *resume* of his views may be found in any history of Pedagogy, in SCHMIDT, HEGEL, ROSENKRANZ, already mentioned, USING'S *Erziehung bei den Griechen und Romern*, CRAMER'S *Geschichte der Ezriehung im Alterthum*, and in GROTE'S large work on Plato. The only monographs I know on the subject are an Essay by Dr. WITTMAN, entitled *Erziehung und Unterricht, bei Plato*, printed with the programme of the Gymnasium of Giessen for 1868; one in Latin by BAUMGARTEN CRUSIUS, published in 1834; Kapp, *Platon's Erziehungslehre*, printed 1833. The recent translation of Plato by Professor JOWETT, of Oxford, England, is the only one in English in which any reliance can be placed. It is the work of a finished scholar.

Far sounder than PLATO and more rational in his educational views was ARISTOTLE, who laid the basis of his theories on a broad experience of human nature. He was a practical teacher, and a very successful one. Not to speak of his royal pupil, he has for over two thousand years had more or less the whole civilized world as his school, and his influence to-day is rather increasing than waning. No man ever, perhaps, attained a clearer view of the aims of education, or better illustrated them by personal example. He is the resume of ancient, and the fountain of modern, thought. We are compelled to-day to think in the channels which he made, and whoever has once thoroughly comprehended a work of ARISTOTLE, is denied the privilege of superficial thinking thenceforth. His views on education are to be found mainly in his "Ethics" and "Politics." Of modern works on his system may be mentioned ZELLER'S *Philosophie der Griechen*; EVERS' *Fragment des Aristoteles' Erziehungsbaus* (1806); KAPP, *Aristoteles' Staatspædagogik*, 1837; SCHULZE, *Erziehungstheorie bei Aristoteles* in the programme of the Gymnasium of Naumburg, 1844. There exist several others of less note.

Greece, in her palmy time, represents the youth of the civilized world in everything—art, religion, education, life. Never, perhaps, was life so joyous, glad, free from care and canker; never were men educated so harmoniously, or suitably to their surroundings as then. In all Greece men were educated above all things to be good, brave, and intelligent citizens. Athens, in addition, educated men to taste, elegance, and refinement; mere business or professional education—what the Germans call *Brodwissenschaften* (bread-and-butter sciences)—was regarded by the Greek with the utmost contempt, as unworthy of a free man. Excellent articles on Greek education generally will be found in BEKKER's *Charikles*, and in ERSCH and GRUBER's *Encyclopædie*, section 1, vol. 93. Both these have the advantage of numerous references to the original sources of information. STEINTHAL's *Geschichte der Sprachwissenschaft bei den Griechen und Ræmern* is a most admirable work, so far as the subject of language goes, and it went a long way in ancient education. MULLER's "Dorians" gives a good account of Spartan education, and there are besides a large number of German and French works to which I have not been able to have acccess, but whose titles will be found in the first volume of SCHMIDT's "History of Pedagogy," already referred to.

True Greek life and Greek thought end with ARISTOTLE, or at least decay from his time on. ARISTOTLE's pupil founded the city of Alexandria, which soon became a world-emporium, and a centre of learning, in which the opinions of all nations met, to clash or mingle. The intellectual activity of Alexandria must at one time have been very great. Her library and academy were the most extensive in the ancient world. Erudition flourished as it never did before, and very seldom since. Our present grammatical system, among other things, dates from those days. Not to mention the histories of pedagogy, one might consult with advantage Dr. A. RICHTER's *Leben und Geistesentwicklung des Plotin*, KINGSLEY's "Alexandria and her Schools," and *Hypatia*, and MICHÆLIS' *Ideenueber Erziehung nach Aristoteles.*

Greece became a Roman province in B. C. 145, and Alexandria was bequeathed to the Romans in 80, and though Greek civilization still continued to make itself directly felt for many centuries afterwards, still it was now under the tutelage of Rome, and forms a constituent part of Roman history. The Latin race is more closely allied to the Greek than either to any other member of the Indo-Germanic family. The two, however, developed differently, and the Greeks at a much earlier period than the Latins. Indeed, it is questionable whether the Romans ever would have attained the development they did without the aid and example of Greece. As Horace says:

> "Captive Greece took captive her rude conqueror."

Letters were introduced by several paths from Greece into Italy at a very early period, as well as several of the other indispensables of civilized life; but education for many centuries was at a very low ebb, being strictly of a political and social kind, until the time when the Romans became directly acquainted with the Greeks. From that time, education, according to Greek models, becomes more and more fashionable in Rome. The best account of Roman education with which I am acquainted is in MOMMSEN's "Roman History." It is treated, of course, in all the Histories of Pedagogy, also in BEKKER's *Gallus*, GUHL's *Das Leben der Griechen und Ræmen*, SCHINDLER's *Ueber die Schulen der Ræmer.* Our Roman antiquities are generally very brief on the subject. Of Roman writers who occupied themselves with pedagogy, the first, according to QUINCTILIAN, was CATO the Censor, whose views may be found in SCHNEIDER's *De Marci Porcii Catonis vita studiis et scriptis.* TERENTIUS VARRO, the teacher of CÆSAR and CICERO wrote a work called *Cato sive de liberis educandis,* only fragments of which now exist. CICERO himself, who, though not a profound thinker, was an excellent scholar, and a most highly educated man, gave much attention to the matter of education. He may be taken as a representative of all that ancient education could do for a man of his calibre. His views, which we find scattered through his philosophical and rhetorical works, are nearly always of the soundest character, particularly those in regard to the age at which different subjects ought to be studied. CÆSAR himself wrote a pedagogical work, entitled, *De Ratione Latine loquendi,* one *De Analogia,* and he invented the term *Ablative* for the sixth case in Latin. He intended to found a Greek and Latin library at Rome.

This same CÆSAR laid the foundation of the Roman empire, and though the history of it is the history of decline and fall, yet education continued to flourish for several hundred years. It might not be education of the highest sort, and might tend to erudition and over-culture, and hence to morbidness; but still it was education, and some very important branches received much attention and improvement in those days. Greek and Latin were both in use as cultivated languages. Erudition flourished at the expense of original research. Hence followed an age of grammarians, rhetoricians, and commentators, who, with all their short-comings, did much for education. In regard to this period, the best original works are those of SENECA, QUINCTILIAN, and PLUTARCH. The writings of the last-named, indeed, are invaluable for pedagogical purposes. An excellent translation of his moral treatises, with a preface by RALPH WALDO EMERSON, has recently been published by Prof. GOODWIN, of Harvard College. There are many wise remarks on education scattered through LUCIAN's works.

But as Greek thought and life, after ALEXANDER, merged into Semiticism and Latinism, so now the Roman empire itself is about to be shaken to its foundations by external influences. The education of the ancient world was insufficient to give it stability, not so much from any defect in the education itself, although that has generally been asserted, as from its lack of universality. Ancient education, and indeed everything ancient that rendered life worth the living, was intended but for the few, and in this, and this alone, lay the principle of its decay. Rome, with a common-school system, might have ruled the world to-day. But it was destined to be otherwise. The great and the mighty had had their day, and now there came a day in which not many great, not many mighty were called. The poor and the ignorant and the down-trodden were now to have their day, and a life-philosophy was to arise suitable for them. That well-spring was Christianity, with which a new epoch in the world's history begins—a new view of life and its uses, and consequently of education.

The world was ripe, if not ready, for Christianity when it came. From the death of ARISTOTLE, philosophy had ceased to be a search after truth for the intellect, and had become a quest for a philosophy by which men might live and make life worth living, in the decay of the old religion. This tendency became more and more pronounced, the quest more and more eager, until at last light broke from an unexpected quarter—the small, despised, oppressed land of Judæa, that lay in the world's thoroughfare. There is, I believe, no separate work on Jewish education. With advantage may be read EWALD's "History of the People of Israel," recently translated into English by MARTINEAU; DAHNE'S *Geschichtliche Darstollung der Judisch-Alexandrinischen Philosophie*, Halle, 1834, and that very remarkable work by the now famous Dr. DŒLLINGER *Heidenthum und Judenthum*.

With the introduction of Christianity, the world passes from youth to manhood education from being national to being human. The individual is now no longer educated for the state, but for humanity; not as a citizen or a member of a privileged class, but as a man, a member of the family of God, as the expression then was. In all that was noble in the sinking Roman empire, all thought and education had for centuries been assuming a religious aspect, and this tendency Christianity met and fostered. That it ended by crushing all real education and intellectual activity is true, but it did not start the progress in that direction. Even the greatest of the later Greek thinkers, PLOTINUS, PORPHYRY, and IAMBLICHUS were already steeped in superstition. Even the genial PLUTARCH is not free from it. That the education in early Christian times was mostly of a religious kind need not cause wonder; many of the Christian fathers, however, were excellent scholars, and favored Greek learning. In regard to this may be consulted the introduction to the first volume of MAX MULLER'S "Chips from a German Workshop," and the essay in that work on Mr. HARDWICK'S "Christ and other Masters," also in SCHMIDT'S *Schulfreund*, Trier, 1855. There are two essays by PALMER in the *Suddeutche Schulbote* for 1854, one entitled *Die Pædagogik des neuen Testaments*, and the other *Pædagogik der Kirchenvater*. The most famous among the church fathers in the matter of Christian education was CHRYSOSTOM, in whose Homilies and work on monasticism we find his views stated. NEANDER'S "Life of Chrysostom" contains valuable information. Saint BASIL, in his address to Christian youth, states his views on the use of heathen authors in education. About the same time instruction in singing received much improvement from St. AMBROSIUS. CLEMENT and ORIGEN, who labored in the region of Alexandria, wrote much upon education. Hitherto the Christian fathers had tolerated, and even encouraged heathen learning, and indeed this was generally the case with the Greek fathers; but now came a time when the heads of the Christian church condemned all heathen literature and learning as impious. The literature of this tendency is represented by the works of TERTULLIAN, CYPRIAN, JEROME and AUGUSTINE. From their days education steadily declined. What still continued was conducted mostly in the monasteries up to the revival of learning, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Its history blends with that of the monastic orders. A most brilliant and truthful picture of the manner of imparting instruction in monasteries in the tenth century occurs in SCHEFFEL'S historic novel, *Ekkehardt*, where the sources of original information are carefully noted. This work, on many accounts, deserves translation into English. A curious document appeared in 1856–7, in the annual report of the Benedictine institute of Maria Einsiedeln, viz., a sort of diary kept by a pupil at the monastic school at Reichenau, in 815, and the following years. It is known as Walafried Strabo's Diary, and has been printed in many pedagogical works. This is perhaps the most valuable, and certainly the most interesting, of all educational documents written in the dark ages. Of modern works on this period there are a considerable number, a list of which is to be found at the beginning of SCHMIDT'S *Geschichte der Pædagogik*, vol. ii.

We have now reached the age of CHARLEMAGNE and ALFRED the Great, but we must not forget to devote a word to the venerable BEDA, who flourished early in the eight century, and who did much for pedagogy. One, at least, of his works is still in existence, in an abridged form, viz., a treatise on astronomy in Anglo-Saxon, published in London by WRIGHT, in his "Popular Treatises on Science written during the Middle Ages." The other treatises in this work are well worthy of attention.

What CHARLEMAGNE and ALFRED did for education is too well known to need notice. The efforts of the former will be found recorded in any life of him, as well as in LORENZ'S *Life of Alcuin*, who was one of the greatest advocates of learning in the dark ages, and CHARLEMAGNE'S greatest aid. For ALFRED'S deserts one would consult PAULY'S life of that monarch, and any history of the Anglo-Saxons: LAPPENBURG'S, TURNER'S, KEMBLE'S, or PALGRAVE'S. For the state of education generally at this period, one turns to HALLAM'S "Introduction to the Literature of Europe," vol. i, and the authorities therein quoted. A curious specimen of the mode of teaching Latin in England, about the year 1000, as well as of the modes of discipline then prevalent, is to be seen in AELFRIC'S "Latin and Saxon Dialogues," printed in THORPE'S *Analecta Anglo-Saxonica;* EBELING'S *Angelsachsisches Lesebuch*, and partly in MARCH'S "Anglo-Saxon Reader." From the days of ALFRED, however, to about the year 1200, though there were learned men, little appears to have been done to further education. These, indeed, were three very dark centuries. The lives of LANFRANC, ABELARD, ROSCELINUS, and WILLIAM of Occam, will afford most of the information attainable in regard to this period. One may also consult with profit COUSIN'S *Fragments de Philosophie du Moyen Age.*

The first University proper was that of Paris, founded about the year 1200, and from that time on, universities continued to be founded in rapid succession. For an account of these institutions, I would refer once for all to KARL VON RAUMER'S *Geschichte der Pædagogik*, to the article on Universities in the *Encyclopædia Brittannica*, HUBER'S *Englische Universitaten*, MEINER'S *Geschichte der Entstehung und Entwicklung der hohen Schulen*, ZARNCKE'S *Deutsche Universitaten im Mittelalter*, Dr. DŒLLINGER'S "Universities Past and Present," and JUSTI'S *Annalen der Deutschen Universitaten.* There exist, besides, one or more histories of almost every university.

Till about the middle of the fourteenth century, the universities, like the monastic schools, were almost entirely in the service of scholasticism. It is about that period that we find WICLIF and PETRARCA, the former the great opponent of church abuses, and the latter of scholasticism. ROGER BACON flourished in the latter part of the thirteenth century, but though unquestionably the most advanced mind of his time, he had little influence on the generation that followed. Consult, besides the works already mentioned, ULLMANN'S *Reformatoren vor der Reformation.* As a curious specimen of the kind of science taught about this time, CHAUCER'S "Treatise on the Astrolabe," London, 1870, is well deserving of perusal. In regard to the education of chivalry, one may read BUSCHING'S *Ritterzeit und Ritterwesen*, FALKE'S *Ritterliche Gesellschaft im Zeitalter des Frauencultus*, St. PALAYE'S *Memoire sur l' Ancienne Chivalerie;* and the early Cantos of the *Nibelungenlied.* CHAUCER'S idea of a "very parfite gentil knight" may be seen in his introduction to the "Canterbury Tales," from which, indeed, a very large amount of information in regard to the state and manner of education in England in the fourteenth century may be derived. TYRWHITT's introduction and notes to Chaucer also give many valuable references.

Alongside the chivalrous education, there arose the city schools, for the benefit of the industrial classes mainly. Towards the end of the twelfth century these began to make their appearance, and, from that period on, have continued to increase till the present day. These schools and their history, perhaps more than anything else in the history of pedagogy, deserve to be studied. They were the necessary precursors of the universities, of our public-school system, of our academies; and indeed, just as the burgesses who founded these schools were the foundation of our middle classes, the real bone and sinew, yea the very soul of modern civilization, so their schools were the cradles of our modern education. It appears that Italy was the first country to own such institutions. Perhaps the best work on this subject is HELFENSTEIN'S *Entwicklung des Schulwesens in seiner culturhistorischen Bedeutung;* and here I must mention once more two works which no library can afford to be without, viz., SCHMID'S *Encyclæpadie der Erziehung,* the most valuable pedagogical work in existence, and ERSCH and GRUBER'S *Allgemeine Encyclopædie der Wissenschaften,* a most ponderous and expensive work, but one containing a wealth of educational literature. There are chapters of considerable value in KOLB'S *Culturgeschichte der Menschheit* and the same author's work on Statistics embrace educational facts.

At these city schools were educated a large number of poor scholars, who lived mostly by begging and a kind of Spartan stealing, and often wandered in crowds from city to city. There were sometimes great men among these paupers, for example LUTHER, and at a much later period, WINCKELMANN. A most vivid account of these schools and scholars is given in THOMAS PLATTER'S "Pilgrimage." THOMAS was born in 1499 in Switzerland.

Alongside the city schools, especially in the Netherlands and neighboring regions, arose likewise schools, known as "Schools of the brothers of common life." These had more of a religious tendency than the others; indeed they succeeded the decayed cloister schools; but the education they afforded was often of a high order. Among the heads of them were many celebrated men.

It is almost unnecessary to mention pedagogical works written in the centuries of which we are speaking, though indeed there were not a few, *e. g.*, the *Anti-Claudianus* of ALAIN DE LILLE, written in the thirteenth century; THOMAS of Cantimpre's *De disciplina Scholarium* in the time of the Crusades; HUGO DE St. VICTOR'S *Didaskalium*; VINCENT DE BEAUVAIS' *De Institutione filiorum regiorum seu nobilium,* etc. This VINCENT DE BEAUVAIS died 1264. There is a life of him by SCHLOSSER (Frankfort 1819), and a good account of him in the above-mentioned work of KELLNER, the Roman Catholic historian of pedagogy. The pedagogical works of the middle ages are almost inaccessible to us on this side of the Atlantic.

But the middle age is passing away, and a new order of things is about to dawn. The sun of pure, rational light, that went down over Hellas when the Spirit of ARISTOTLE departed, is now about to rise again, dimly and in clouds at first, but with ever-increasing splendor. Greece has faithfully preserved the trust committed to her. A thousand years after her conqueror, Rome, is laid low at the feet of the barbarian, she is waked from her long sleep by the "barbarous Turk,' and rises radiant to illumine the world. As a great writer says:

> "For ever more,
> With grander resurrection than was feigned
> Of Attila's fierce Huns, the soul of Greece
> Conquers the bulk of Persia."

Printing is invented, Constantinople taken, the Cape of Good Hope doubled, America discovered, the Reformation ushered in. The middle age passed away like an unsubstantial pageant, and left a gulf in whose gloom we are forever blind. One may return to Greece and feel at home, but an unearthly feeling comes over us if we try to conjure up the middle ages. For the description of this change, I would refer to FROUDE'S "History of England," the "Life of Reuchlin," by MAYERHOFF, and of "Erasmus," by A. MULLER (1828), one in SCHMID'S *Encyclopædie,* and in one of the early volumes of "MACMILLAN'S Magazine," and to the original works of ERASMUS, which are easy of access; also the life of ALEXANDER HEGIUS. There is a life of ULRICH VON HUTTEN, by STRAUSS, and his works have been recently republished in elegant form. To those who do not wish to go to the bottom of the subject may be recommended the first essay in "Essays on a Liberal Education," London, 1868. This is, indeed, a most comprehensive production, a statement which cannot be made of all the essays in the book. In regard to Italian instruction and instructors, the best works appear to be ORELLI'S "Life of Vittorino of Feltre," HALLAM'S History, already mentioned, and ROSCOE'S *Life of Lorenzo de' Medici.*

The Reformation is the great era in modern history. With it begins anew an epoch of rational and humane education. Henceforth pedagogy tends more and more to become a science based on the nature of the human mind. To attempt giving anything like a complete list of the works on pedagogy produced from that time till now would be absurd and useless. I shall merely give hints as to the direction in which information may be found, and name a few of the more promising works. And first, the lives and writing of the great reformers, LUTHER, MELANCHTHON, BUGENHAGEN, ZWINGLI, TROTZENDORF, CALVIN and KNOX. TROTZENDORF was a great scholastic reformer, and deserves special attention. Another great pedagogical light was MICHAEL NEANDER, born in 1825, the bibliography of whose life and works will be found in an appendix to CARL VON RAUMER'S "History of Pedagogy." About the same time lived HIERONYMUS WOLF, for whom I would refer to the same source. Greater and of more influence than either was JOHANNES STURM, a good account of whom will be found in "Essays on a Liberal Education" and the bibliography, as well as an excellent sketch of his life in places in the work just mentioned. To the same work I must refer for WOLFGANG RATICH and COMENIUS, the latter of whom is specially famous. His works are numerous and important. There is a complete list of them in VON RAUMER'S work. The most important English works written during this period are ROGER ASCHAM'S *Scholemaster*—recently republished in elegant and convenient form—BACON'S "Advancement of Learning," LOCKE'S "Conduct of the Understanding"—recently published in very convenient form by Messrs. SCHERMERHORN, of New York—MILTON'S "Tractate on Education," and MORE'S *Utopia.* From LOCKE, the lives of AUGUST HERMANN FRANCKE, by GUERIKE (1827), the works of GESNER (1761), and the life of JOHN AUGUST ERNESTI, would bring us down to a man who, whatever his character and demerits, exercised an enormous influence on education—I mean JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU.

But meanwhile there were other men who did much in an indirect way to further education, and whom the student of pedagogy cannot afford to pass over in silence, e. g., Descartes, Spinoza, Pascal, Rollins and Fenelon. The latter wrote a very celebrated work on Female Education. There are after names of some importance, which space compels me to omit. I must, however, call attention to Ledderhose's "Life of Flattich," and then pass on to Rousseau.

If there is any book that all sentimentalists and dreamers in the matter of education should read, it is Jean Jacques' *Emile*. They will find little room for dreaming afterwards, and will have learnt something. Yet I never knew half a dozen people who knew anything of that famous work. Rousseau exerted, and still exerts, an immense influence, and here in America more than anywhere else. The very Constitution of the United States bears deep and direct traces of him, and many a pedagogue, who would be horrified to be called a disciple of Rousseau, preaches piecemeal his doctrine, without that consummate style for which the Genevese is so deservedly famous. Whether for good or for evil, Rousseau begins an era in education. With him we have a return to nature and first principles. Everything done and written in education since his day presupposes his exertions. His works have been often printed, and his *Emile* is easily attainable in either English or French.

Eleven years younger than Rousseau, more practical but less influential was Basedow, of whom Goethe has given so truthful a description. He was unquestionably one of the most remarkable educators that the world has ever seen. His institution at Dessau, which he named *Philanthropin*, drew the attention of all Europe, and opened wide many a princely purse. His works, which, unfortunately, are almost inaccessible, are replete with much that is valuable. His first publication was *De inusitata et optima honestioris Juventutis erudiendæ methodo.* This was a mere dissertation, as was his *Methodisher Unterricht sowohl in der elichennature als biblischen Religion.* His first work, intended to last, was his *Methodenbuch fur Vœter und Muetter der Familien und Vœlker.* His *Elementarbuch mit Kupfern* appeared about the same time. A little later came his *Agathokrator.* His *Das in Dessau errichtete Philanthropinum*, which contains amongst other things an autobiography; his *Philanthropinisches Archiv*, *Vierteijahrige Nachrichten*, and *Pædegogishe Unterhaltungen*, contain all that is valuable in his educational views. The importance of Basedow may be estimated by the fact that he was endorsed by so great a man as Kant. That Basedow was an enthusiast, and did some foolish things, and followed some foolish theories, does not entitle us to set him aside. The name of his institution has become a designation for any chimerical project—an application which it does not deserve. A very remarkable name in the history of pedagogy is that of John George Hamann, known as the *Magus of the North*, whose writings in eight volumes, edited by Roth, are readily obtained. He wrote "Confessions," said to resemble closely those of St. Augustine.

I must now mention two men, who, less as practical teachers than as philosophical writers, did much to further the cause of human education—I mean Herder and F. A. Wolf, the writings of both of whom one has little difficulty in procuring. Herder was one of the greatest men that Germany ever produced, the intellectual father of Goethe and Schiller, and Wolf was perhaps the most successful teacher she ever gave birth to. Alongside these we must not forget the works of the great German philosophers, Kant, Fichte, Hegel, HERBART, and SCHLEIERMACHER. What KANT'S views on pedagogy were, may be learnt from STRUMPELL'S *Pedagogik Kant's, Fichte's, Herbart's.* FICHTE'S pedagogical writings occupy three volumes, HERBART'S two, and HEGEL'S three. SCHLEIERMACHER wrote a very excellent treatise, entitled *Erziehungslehre.* The last were collected and edited by THAULOW. In GOETHE'S writings there is much that is of the highest possible value for pedagogy. His *Wilhelm Meister* may be said to be pedagogical throughout. To those who are destined to guide the education of this great country, the writings of those great thinkers are of far more value than all that ever was written by professed pedagogues.

Three years older than GOETHE was the most famous pedagogue of modern times—the man whose works have divided, and still divide the educational world into two camps—JOHN HENRY PESTALOZZI, born at Zurich in 1746. PESTALOZZI was himself, indeed, a very inferior teacher, and a very poor organizer in every way, but his theories were so specious and attractive that they have found many admirers, and himself many followers. PESTALOZZI was one of the best and humanest of men—his whole life one effort to benefit humanity. It is not my business here, however, to characterize him or his theories; but I cannot help expressing my astonishment at one thing. Notwithstanding all that is written here about Pestalozzianism at present, I have never known a single American who had anything like a decent acquaintance with PESTALOZZI'S works. There is a general vague notion that he propounded certain doctrines, and, in some way or another, is connected with object-teaching—that pedagogical apple-of-discord; but what he precisely taught few could accurately tell. Those desirous of informing themselves on the subject, will have no difficulty in doing so. His works were published by COTTA in fifteen volumes, between 1819 and 1828. There is a new edition in very convenient form, now in process of publication, more complete than the original one. The works written upon PESTALOZZI are very numerous. A list is to be found in VON RAUMER'S "History," vol. ii., p. 500.

Considerably younger than ROUSSEAU was HAMILTON, the author of the famous Hamiltonian system of teaching languages. An account of him and his system will be found in one of the early volumes of the "Edinburgh Review," and in PFAU'S *Der Sprachunterricht bei Hamilton und Jacotot.* This JACOTOT was a contemporary of HAMILTON; and created no inconsiderable stir in the educational world. His views are to be found in his work, entitled *Enseignement universel,* a work which ought to be the Bible of all persons who believe in perfect equality of ability between child and child, and in the doctrine that it is not necessary to know a subject in order to teach it.

PESTALOZZI died 1827, HAMILTON in 1831, and JACOTOT in 1840. Since the days of these men the science of pedagogy has advanced with great rapidity, and produced a literature at the extent of which one stands utterly astonished. It is hardly necessary to say that the mass of this literature is in German. I can do nothing more than name the most important works. And first—Histories of Pedagogy. Of these the most important are SCHMIDT'S, VON RAUMER'S (which begins with the revival of learning), and KELLNER'S. There is also a small work by BRUCKBACH, called *Wegweiserdurch die Geschichte der Pœdagogik.* There are histories of education in antiquity by CRAMER (1838–52), and by USING. Of works on Pedagogy, in its narrowest sense, that is, on methods of teaching, there are a very large number. I shall mention only those of DIESTERWEG, CURTMANN'S *Lehrbuch der Erziehung,* MULLER'S *Erziehung und Bildung,* RIECKE'S

Erziehungslehre, and LEUTZ's *Theorie und Praxis des Unterrichts.* Upon object teaching we have works by DENZEL, HARDER, RICHTER, WRAGE, and others. On *Kindergarten*, we must consult FROBEL'S *Menschenerziehung*, and *Pædagogik des Kindergartens*, as well as LAUTIER'S *Frobel's Pædagogik.* Of works in teaching arithmetic in particular, we have those of BOHME, DIESTERWEG, MENZEL, and GRAFE. On teaching language, we have works by HARUISCH, KELLNER, OTTO, and better than all, MARCEL'S "Study of Languages," written in English by a Frenchman, and published in 1869 by APPLETON & Co., of New York. Of Encyclopædias, I have already mentioned SCHMID'S, a work of more value to educationists than any other existing, I believe. Of annual periodicals, by far the best is LUBEN'S *Pædagogischer Jahresbericht*, begun in 1846, and now consisting of twenty-two volumes. As a review of systems, progress, and current literature, this is a perfect mine of invaluable information. I ought also to name BRZOSKA'S *Centralbibliothek der Pædagogik*, in four volumes, and ZILLER'S *Jahrbuch fur Pædagogik.* Of quarterly, monthly, and weekly periodicals relating to education, published in Germany, I cannot even give a list. There are periodicals relating to all stages of education, and suited to all classes of people. I find a list of twenty-two in an American bookseller's catalogue, and it must be remembered that every one of these is contributed to by men who have attained the highest distinction in the branches upon which they write. They have no similiarity whatsoever to the bulk of our local educational periodicals. The French are rich in educational periodicals. I find the names of eighteen in the same catalogue. England, so far as I am aware, has only one—"The Museum," which, in the second year of its existence, changed from being a quarterly to being a monthly. It is edited with great care, and contains many excellent articles by first-class educators. Ireland has the "Irish Teacher," a very creditable production, evincing much learning and earnestness. Canada has, at least, two educational monthlies, and the United States a number beyond record. If one cannot speak very highly of our local periodicals, there are other works of a periodical nature that deserve the highest praise on every ground save that of economy. BARNARD'S "Journal of Education" is a most valuable addition to pedagogical literature—indeed, I believe, the most valuable work of the kind in the English language. The "Reports of the National Bureau of Education" are extremely interesting and useful, perfect examples of what reports should be, not to speak of the school reports, whose name is legion. I have read through many of these, and have found them superior to any reports I have ever seen elsewhere. They often contain irrelevant matter, to which its place there is the only objection. I have, in them, found excellent pedagogical essays and maxims, which, if collected and printed by themselves, would be valuable contributions to pedagogical literature.

With the view of making my paper as short as possible, I have omitted a good deal of recent English writing on pedagogy. This I can do all the more safely, that it is within the reach of every one to learn its extent. It is not necessary for me to call attention to the writings of HORACE MANN, or the efforts of the Oswego teachers—nor even to Prof. D'ARCY THOMSON'S "Day-Dreams of a Schoolmaster." I therefore leave here this most important sketch of the possessions of pedagogical literature, and proceed to enumerate its wants, as far as ourselves are concerned. These, fortunately, may be stated in a very few words, and to these I would invite your special attention. In the first place, the very fact that such a paper as this was called for, proves that we need—

1st. A Bibliographical work on Pedagogical Literature: that is, a complete list of all works written on education, in whatsoever language, arranged according to the branches of which they treat, and with a brief estimate of their relative value. To produce such a work would take years of labor, but I think it would be worth so much.

2d. We need, to accompany this, a complete History of Pedagogy from the earliest times to the present day. This ought to be supplied with copious notes and reference to the sources of information. I ought to say here that, though there are several histories of pedagogy existing in the German language, it would not answer our purpose to translate any one or all of these. They might and would form invaluable aids to the writer of an English History of Pedagogy, but, one and all, they are defective on very many points. One is written from a sectarian point of view, another is vitiated by being written according to the most visionary of philosophic schemes, which distorts facts, replacing many by high-sounding words and hollow phrases, and so on. What we want is something different from all this. We want neither sectarian nor philosophic histories. We want a history of facts and principles—a scientific history.

3d. Our third, and greatest need, seems to be, that the works on pedagogy already existing should be brought within the reach and the pecuniary limits of all teachers. To the accomplishment of this end I see only one means, the consideration of which I would press upon the members of this association. In this broad land we have scholars enough and linguists enough, men ready and willing too, I know, to render all foreign pedagogical literature into English. That being done, all that remains is to find a means of printing and disseminating these. Were this undertaken, under the auspices of this association, and under the care of a competent editor, and the works issued in monthly or fortnightly numbers to subscribers, more would be done to further the ends of education than is done by all our local periodicals put together. Just how such a pedagogical library might be managed we may see by looking at VON KIRCHMANN's German *Library of Philosophy*. The first number of the work was issued in September, 1868, and the work has now reached about its one hundredth number. Each contains from a hundred to a hundred and fifty closely printed pages, stitched, and costs five silber groschen, or about twelve cents of our money. The work already comprises the more famous productions of ARISTOTLE, PLATO, BACON, LOCKE, HUME, DESCARTES, GROTIUS, LEIBNIZ, BERKELEY, KANT, FICHTE, SCHLEIERMACHER, and HEGEL, all in German, and accompanied in many cases with copious explanatory notes. There are always several works in process of publication at the same time.

4th. The fourth want of our pedagogical literature is a first-class periodical, a regular monthly record of educational progress, and an incorruptible critic of all educational works, supplemented by an annual, something like LUEBENS' *Pædagogisher Jahresbericht*. Such a periodical could exist only under certain not very easily attainable conditions, but under the auspices and with the active aid of this association it might be made to prosper. Its redaction ought to be in the hands of the first scholars of the country, men who can distinguish the good from the evil, the enduring from the flimsy and visionary, and who are beyond the reach of insinuating publishers. We should thus be able to get a reliable record of educational progress, of new works and new methods from all the countries of the world—an advantage by no means despicable.

These, then, are the wants of our pedagogical literature, as they appear to me. If not numerous, they are very important, and entail upon us some very great inconveniences. I venture to say that if our teachers were once thoroughly acquainted with the history of education, its general scope and purpose, and felt the important part it plays in the world's history, the dignity of the teacher's profession would cease to form a subject for touching declamation, by becoming a self-evident matter. It is hard to wax eloquent upon the self-evident.

The foregoing address of Mr. DAVIDSON was followed by a paper by Mr. ALFRED KIRK, of Chicago, Illinois, entitled: "What Moral Uses May a Recitation be Made to Subserve?"

WHAT MORAL USES MAY A RECITATION BE MADE TO SUBSERVE?

Human life has two sides, the one without the other within, the one visible and tangible, the other moral and invisible; the outer life at all times surrounds yet never touches the inner; the one finds its sphere and its affinities in the physical world, the other draws its inspiration from the divinity in man; the one contemplates time, the other finds its fulfillment in eternity. On the former side man may to all outward appearance be losing, while winning all the while on the moral side, closing victorious with every prize he set before himself firmly in his grasp; or he may on the tangible side be gathering into great barns, his hands grasping much of worldly honor and emoluments, and withal be found wanting when his soul shall be required of him. The intangible side of man is beyond weight, measure or calculation. We are surrounded by multitudes who never suspect that it is not all of life to live, nor all of death to die, who, strangers to any divinity within them, live but little higher than do the beasts, eating, drinking and searching their lives through for physical comforts, and then die as the fool dieth. It is not true of necessity, however, that one of these sides of life must or can be cultivated without loss at the expense of the other. They are in the most perfect accord and both may be developed into their truest fulfillment by essentially the same agencies. Success on the visible side is not incompatible with, nor does it preclude the possibility of a corresponding success on the moral side. They are, rather, aids to each other; for life is one grand harmony of activities all contributing to human development and human happiness. Life is to every man something in advance of what he can do, for he lives more than he does, and there is a life within him, a spiritual existence, a moral force that proposes or suggests to him an ever-advancing ideal, and points him ever to what his life should attain. It is in this ideal phase of life that man gathers his power and finds the meaning of his creation, and it is on this moral side that he fulfills the great purpose of his life, and through which he shall reach his immortality.

Man is estimated as his life discovers the processes by which its problems are solved.

He needs power and possesses it, but this power should be under an intelligent and conscientious control. Mind without heart, intelligence without integrity, cleverness without goodness are powers in this way, but may be powers for mischief. The element of power in man is valuable to life, is essential, but it may be diverted to purposes which are evil rather than good, it may be destructive rather than formative, cursing humanity rather than blessing it. A conscientious will thoroughly trained in just and honest principles must dominate and guide this desirable acquisition or it may bring us to shame. Fundamental truths and beneficent purposes must form the basis upon which the conduct of life is laid. The life forces must have an accurate adjustment before we may confidently expect a well-regulated manhood and womanhood; just such a manhood and womanhood as the issues of the age and country are asking of its educators, well-built and vital, manifold and harmonious, full of wisdom, full of energy, full of faith. A recent writer most happily emphasizes this thought in the following terse language: "We need to rear men fit and ready for all spots and crises, prompt and busy in affairs, gentle among little children, self-reliant in danger, genial in company, sharp in a jury-box, tenacious at town meetings, unseducible in a crowd, tender at a sick bed, not likely to jump into the first boat at a shipwreck, affectionate and respectful at home, obliging in a traveling party, shrewd and just in the market, reverent and punctual at church, brave in action, patient in suffering, believing and cheerful everywhere, fervent in spirit, serving the Lord." The Prussians have a maxim, and a wise one too, that whatever you would have appear in the life of a nation, you must put into its schools. All that portion of mankind which is making contributions to civilization and morality live in pursuit of an ideal of some kind, and the character of the community or nation undoubtedly depends upon the nature of this ideal, and upon the earnestness and persistence with which it is pursued. A school is a nation's laboratory, in which are wrought out by a sort of marvelous alchemy its great moral forces and instrumentalities, and from which emanate those unseen influences that lift it into a grander purpose, and carry it to a more glorious destiny. It is a moral mint, in which is coined a currency whose circulation is as conformable to its national economy, and as essential to its vital existence as its silver and gold are to its organic life. Would a nation have its moral drafts honored, there must be daily deposits of honest principles, benificent purposes, and a genuine love of truth into its public schools. It must cast its seed liberally and confidently upon the waters, assured of a bountiful harvest. A nation is but an aggregate of individuals, and possessed as they of distinctly personal attributes; there are phases social and political, intellectual and moral, and much of the elements that enter their study must be furnished by its schools. No one will question the paramount obligation of educating or training the individual members of a state in the direction of all truth, whether of intellect, manners or morals. As educators undertaking to provide something of the nation's life, we must be prepared to enact a platform of generous and most thorough culture, and to furnish the conditions that contribute, not to an intellectual growth merely but to the development of the whole character. The inner and invisible life must have free course and blossom into sound and wholesome fruit. It must distill sweetness through roots that ramify in a soil of purity and love, and take its nutriment from air through which no malaria permeates, and its growth must be upward into the fair light of justice and integrity. We are too much concerned in our educational economy for such a man as HUXLEY portrays. "That man," says he, "has a liberal education who has been so trained in youth that his body is the ready servant of his will, and does with ease and pleasure all the work that as a mechanism it is capable of; whose intellect is a clear, cold logic engine with all its parts of equal strength and in smooth working order, ready like a steam-engine to be turned to any kind of work, and spin the gossamer as well as forge the anchor of the mind; whose mind is stored with a knowledge of the great and fundamental truths of nature and the laws of her operations; one who is full of life and fire, but whose passions are trained to come to heel by a vigorous will the servant of a tender conscience; who has learned to love all beauty, whether of science or art, to hate all vileness, and to love others as himself." In this theory of culture or scheme of education, morals, as such, hold no place whatever unless we conclude the argument in the "tender conscience" or "respect for others." We are too much concerned for what are called, by a sort of unconscious irony, the practical studies, by which young men are prepared for life, as though children are fitly prepared for life or its highest claims when they have no instruction in the duties they owe themselves as immortal intelligences, their fellow-men and to God the father of us all. We should be no less concerned on the moral side leading to condemn evil, proclaiming the supremacy of right, developing the conception of good and evil, the consciousness of free will, and a feeling of obligation and responsibility, which have their material side, it is true, and application, but through faithful instruction rise to an infinitely higher region. We are prone to ignore, so far as any plan is concerned, the higher and broader claims that appeal to us for a more generous and complete culture, something that shall indicate our relations to God as well as to man, something that shall ensure a development of all the powers and activities, giving not only keenness and readiness to the perceptions, force and accuracy to the judgment, refinement to the taste, but ennobling the moral attributes, and giving simplicity and purity to the whole life; or as Mr. Arnold expresses it, the aim of culture is "to make reason and the kingdom of God prevail." It may be difficult to determine just how far there shall be a distinctive culture of the head or heart, or what shall be the exact proportion of this or that element of mental discipline or personal culture. There is no invariable law by which we can determine where one train of thought, or an illustration of one principle or application of one truth shall supercede or subordinate another. Circumstances and seasons will indicate our opportunity. A high sense of honor should be implanted in children and fostered, their likes and dislikes trained, not repressed, an honest pride instilled, correct impulses developed and strengthened, self-respect awakened, laudable ambition incited, and worthy aspirations fanned into flame. Character is always forming, and whatever is true or false in the surroundings, will, whether sensibly or insensibly, affect this formation either favorably or unfavorably, and we shall fail to meet our engagements if we do not plant ourselves among these formative agencies with a correct purpose and an upright life. If pupils would grow into truth, or be shaped into habits of right living we should embody the truth, should be honest and pure in heart and life, and our daily walk actuated and governed by convictions of an immortal responsibility. As they who shape for eternity we should be men and women of culture and keen thought, fearless in the proclamation of right views and zealous in defence of the truth. We should be of clear purpose and organized will, reflecting in our lives whatever is of good report. The recognition of the necessity of this great personal culture in the direction of morals as embraced in the plan of the teacher's work has hitherto been theoretical rather than practical. It has a pleasant ring and all have subscribed to it and have been eulogistic in its advocacy, but to adopt the thought in its practical every-day relation to the work of the school has involved so constant a watchfulness and preparation, so much vigor and skill in its application and enforcement, that but few have been found who are willing to respond to the enlarged activity.

There is involved not only a preparation that shall meet all the intellectual processes, but a clear understanding of those agencies that shall most surely discipline and mould the life into excellence. The teacher's life is ever an appeal to the pupil, and he is fashioned by it just as naturally and unconsciously as he breathes the mountain air. There is no real culture that does not embrace morals in its scheme, for morals and the truest culture coincide in that their aims are one. They both consider the internal condition as of the first moment. Progressiveness is the great characteristic of both. They both maintain that perfection is of the invisible man. Moral culture, however, is not merely a means to an end, but a good in itself to be pursued for itself. "Virtue is its own reward." The lamented ARNOLD held that all the scholarship man ever had, was infinitely worthless in comparison with even a very humble degree of spiritual advancement. He desired to awake the soul of each individual boy, and contended that the main movement should come from within, and not from without the pupil. The three ends at which he aimed in the order of their relative importance, were, first and foremost, to inculcate religious and moral principle, then courtesy of manners, and lastly, intellectual ability. To his mind, religion and politics, the doing one's duty to God and man, were the two things really wanting. It is on this moral side in which, I am persuaded, lies the line of the teacher's work. Intellectual acquisition is now less generally recognized as the true aim of educational agencies than formerly. Men, hitherto, have not selected a commanding point of view with reference to this economy of culture, nor the one best fitted for an intelligent conception of the great work to be done. Subjects, sciences, and the various departments of knowledge with reference to their respective demands upon the mind, have engrossed the thoughts and discussions of men, rather than the mind itself, its modes of development, and its laws of action as manifested through mental phenomena. Men and women are awaking to the great fact that *children* must be taught rather than subjects; that agencies, moral as well, must be employed that shall strengthen and develop the lives of pupils less through the study of branches of learning, than by contact with human thought and human will. BACON defines art, as "man added to things." The teacher's work may not inaptly be styled as that which adds manhood to man. Some one has said: "Teachers are the directors under Christ, the masters of an immortal rearing," a discipline that shall find its fruit chiefly in the world to come. Man is meant to be an incarnation of illimitable humanity. He was so created, and it becomes the office of the teacher to make good, as far as possible with human agencies, the loss at his fall; to make productive the remnant of good that was not obliterated, to awaken and direct the activities that did not forsake their habitation, so that they come to possess the man in the interest, and for the establishment of the truth, by which all men are free. A recitation is most emphatically the teacher's opportunity of discovering to the pupil that greatest of all lessons, and that greatest of all problems, "How to live." It is the time more than any other in which the pupils feel a genuine, living and educating presence, by which the understanding is captivated, and the enthusiasm enkindled. It is a time to go down to the depths of the truth in every department, and to dwell among its harmonies until the whole life is pervaded with its fascinations. It is a time to fuse and harmonize the fragments of facts and principles as they are found in science, or in human character. It is a time for a discussion of those great principles that underlie every life, and for a specific pointing of those morals of which every day is so full.

It is a time in which to cultivate the love of the beautiful in nature and her operations, the beautiful in art, and the beautiful in the truth that pervades the universal creation. It is a time for those appeals to the moral sense of children which are pivotal in the experience of so many lives; a time to discover the great and fundamental distinctions of right and wrong, and the deep and subtle discernments of falsehood and truth. A recitation should, and with the educated and conscientious teacher does, furnish some of the most fruitful occasions for the development of character in children, in the cultivation of this moral side of pupils which we have been discussing. The crown and glory of life, is character. Laws and institutions are but its outgrowth. It is a power in a much higher and safer sense than knowledge is power. An old writer defines it as "That inbred loyalty unto Virtue which can serve her without a livery." That boy was a brilliant exemplification of this grace, and through it a teacher of men, who, when asked why he did not pocket some pears, for no one was there to see, replied: "Yes, there was—I was there to see myself, and I do not intend ever to see myself do a dishonest thing." When all else fails the upright man, he can plant himself upon his integrity and his moral heroism. When STEPHEN of Colonna fell into the hands of his assailants, and they asked him in derision, "Where now is your fortress?" "Here," was his reply, placing his hand upon his heart. The strength, the industry, and the civilization of nations all depend upon individual character, and the very foundations of civil and religious liberty rest upon it. It engenders that sensibility of principle and that chastity of honor that feels a stain like a wound, that inspires courage, and ennobles whatever it touches. It is the nurse of manly sentiment and heroic enterprise; the unbought grace of life, which vice cannot touch, because there is no lodging-place for grossness.

Of the specific elements of character, whose cultivation may be subserved by the recitation, and of which we seize but one or two for discussion, Attention seems to present itself first and foremost, for it is the prime element of success, the forerunner of all attainments, and the pioneer of every acquisition. Attention makes the genius; all learning, fancy and science depend upon it. All moral achievements stand in close affinity to it, and acknowledge their obligations to it, because in itself it is a moral acquisition, and a moral power. All success in life is its debtor, and it gives a specific value to every endowment that is our heritage. As a voluntary power of fixing the perceptions, it has its moral side and its moral purpose, by which the great moral truths that regulate the relations of men are perceived. It touches this inner life of man we have been discussing, and holds the same relation to the invisible and moral world that its intellectual phase does to the physical world. It takes cognizance of the truths, facts and phenomena of the inner and superior life, and concerns itself with what man is. The processes by which both its phases are cultivated are essentially the same, the objects of its application alone are different. The power of fixing the attention is a great and important acquisition, and can be fostered only by moral influences and through moral agencies. The presentation of natural objects, or the gathering of the facts of natural science, solicit and secure the mind's notice; but the exercise of the principle of volition as a motive power enabling it to arrive at its knowledge by its own action, is a moral effort, and subserves a moral purpose. The intelligent teacher will not commit the grave blunder of substituting the exercise of his own will for that of the pupil; he rather aims to touch, by a kind of magnetism, the pupil's activities, as a propelling force working from within, as from a centre.

Attention is the primary object of the teacher's effort, and is to be developed through curiosity and observation; and to be profitable, should be prompt, earnest engrossing, and continued. The true line of educational work involves this element as of paramount necessity; it is the corner-stone, without which there can be reared no fabric of faithful instruction. It is the beginning, middle, and end of every recitation, as it is the inspiration of every effort in life.

Another moral quality that may be secured through the agency of the recitation is "Concentration of Aim," or fixedness of purpose, a devotion to one object for the time. But little is accomplished in the pupil's work, so long as his efforts are scattered, his strength divided, or his energies paralyzed by a multiplicity of aims. Men achieve in any direction but little more than nothing, if their activities be weakened by diversion into various channels. The pupil must be taught the vital importance of doing but one thing at a time, but doing that thing with all the might, and well. It is just as vital and imperative in the pupil's daily work, as in the department of mechanical labor. It lies at the very root of all successful effort in all branches of human industry, but rises to its highest power in the development of human character, as human life is the crowning work of creation. Pupils, men and women, fail not so much from poverty of resources as from mental dissipation, from that scattering of effort that is so characteristic of American life. One well-cultivated, deepened, and enlarged activity, is worth a thousand shallow, skimming, surface endeavors. A shrewd American writer recently observed, "The one prudence in life is concentration, the one evil is dissipation, and it makes no difference whether our dissipations are coarse or fine, property and its cares, friends, social customs, politics, music, or feasting. Everything is good which takes away one plaything or delusion more, and drives us home to add one stroke of faithful work." One of our blunders, akin to crime, is in making our children drive too many subjects of study abreast. Their minds are distracted and weakened upon a great variety of objects, and they are apt to suffer defeat because the attention is forever diffused through so many channels that it can never gather in force in any one point or upon any one object. The gardener who expects a rich fruitage does not suffer the sap to be diverted into a thousand channels, to develop a growth of useless twigs, but he prunes the slender offshoots, and leaves the vital forces to pervade a few vigorous branches. Steam diffused in cloudy vapor is both harmless and powerless, the merest negation, but confined in some iron cylinder, and its inherent power concentrated and directed as a motive agent, it is the ready and faithful servant of an intelligent will, and brings the very corners of the earth to our threshholds. So of the activities of the human character. Concentration is the guide and genius, so to speak, of energy. Let the pupils be taught that nothing can be accomplished without this devotion to one purpose, that their minds and energies must be closely and intently bent on whatever they undertake, for in no other way can they have a reasonable hope of success. Whatever is to be done, whether writing an essay or whittling a stick, let it be done with a specific aim. Learn a lesson of the youth who, in his embarrassment, whittled away his shingle, and whose hopes, not less than his energies went out with the shavings. Pupils should be taught to be their own royal masters in the mastery of their own powers, through an intense convergence of the rays of the mind, as a burning-glass gathers into one focus all the rays of heat that enter its disc. Every recitation should be an illustration of the power and beneficence of concentrated, well-directed effort. The age and the world abound with examples and lessons which the teacher may seize, and hold up for the encouragement and incitement of the pupil; but the power is best cultivated by a faithful and persistent direction of the pupil's own activities. The lightning only finds its mark as it gathers itself into one sharp thunderbolt.

Self-reliance is a third specific element of character that finds its most favorable conditions of growth in the class-room, a will to be one's own master, a faith in one's self as a factor in the struggle of humanity to elevate itself, a confidence in one's ability to fulfill the meaning of his life, and carry it to honor. Every man must be the architect to fashion his own fortune, and to this end must believe in his genius for such a work. His life must be an outward flow, bequeathing a legacy of good deeds to mankind, and himself one of the world's potentialities, discovering within himself, under God, the elements and capacities of usefulness and honor. This lesson of self-reliance is learned in the pupil's daily work, and may be emphasized at every recitation, for nowhere else is his faith in himself put to such a test. He is brought face to face with what he can do, and is made to see himself gradually gathering new strength, and rising to a broader horizon of power and efficiency. It is in the recitation most of all, that the pupil may learn to lean upon himself, as his most certain support; to be his Hercules, whose shoulders shall bear their own burden, to disdain all charity and crutches, and to refuse all extraneous aid. The hardiest plants grow and thrive where the storm beats most violently; and right here we might learn a lesson of nature, who puts all to the proof, and only they are crowned who come through by virtue of their strength. A conviction of power and capacity, is a most potent agency, and lifts a man from penury and obscurity into the brightness of distinction. A nest of honey is often found in the slain lion.

"Are you in earnest? Seize this very minute,
What you can do, or dream you can, begin it.
Boldness has genius, power and magic in it."

It is related of a young French officer that he used to walk about his apartments exclaiming, "I will be marshal of France, and a great general;" and this ardent desire was the presentiment, as his self-reliance was the key to his success. This trait of character easily becomes a habit, when we reflect what a serious matter life is, and how unworthy and stupid it is to trifle it away without heed, and what a wretched, insignificant creature one comes to be, who does not as soon as possible, bend his whole strength, as in stringing a stiff bow, to do whatever lies before him. The pupil should at once learn that all he is, or may hope to be, comes from himself, developed in and by himself; that he must buffet, not float into success; that he must provide against his shipwreck by anchoring in his own strength, and that his misfortunes proceed from a distrust of himself, for no man can fail who believes in himself. He must learn to fashion and create for himself by the power and force of his own character, rather than inherit any legacy to which he did not contribute, and that he can no more be strong and independent in his clinging and reliance upon others, than the ivy that lives upon the oak. A pupil can only reach self-reliance through difficulties, for adversity and obstacles but temper him, and make him his own guide and counselor; they are the stimuli that make his face to flush through an aroused soul. He lives most royally who brings these oppositions to heel by a confident reliance upon his own capabilities and powers; and he honors his life and gives it an emphatic significance, who comes through the fire as a refiner's silver. Life never finds its meaning in the lap of ease and idleness, nor does it rise to the dignity of its purpose unless it be tried in the crucible, and the furnace that shall burn away the wood and the stubble. It is by such masters that self-reliance is mainly brought to the front. The school is the world in miniature, and these same lessons may there be learned, and the same qualities there developed which have hitherto been left to the world to foster or destroy. The qualities that are most conducive to the welfare of civil society, are here most fitly and safely implanted in those individuals who shall be its members, and not the least of these is the virtue that undertakes whatever gives rise to any hope of its accomplishment.

Another moral attribute which a recitation may be made to subserve in pupils, is "Endurance." Endurance is the test of strength. "He that endureth unto the end shall be saved." It is not sufficient that individuals exercise a self-reliant principle of action, or a concentrated power of attention, they must be lasting, must hold out to the end of things. It will not answer life's great purpose to run well for a time, and then faint when adversity cometh. Endurance is the quality that men most fear in an adversary, and that which most surely shall win all victories. It is born of a cultivated will, and admits of no possibility of failure or defeat; and there seems no enterprise which, when undertaken, it cannot bring to pass. It gives value to every other talent that we possess. It is mainly by virtue of this stern element of character, that freedom, and every liberty that man holds dear has been wrung from unwilling power. I am persuaded that the great difference between our pupils—the difference between men and women, between those in high places and low, is this inflexible energy, this sustained enthusiasm, this invincible purpose to win at all hazards. The teacher should ever guard the pupil against spasmodic, intermitted effort or fitful action, which at the best, does but little more than wear out the strength, and thwart the purposes of life. It is just here that teachers need to be most vigilant. It is rare to find a pupil who does not at times feel some inspiration, or pulse of genius, and respond to it; who does not feel moved by some underflow, or catch at some brightness that shines into his soul, but his efforts are like some clay projectile, that finds its recoil in itself and is crushed at the first resistance. The daily recitation should discover to him the sterling worth of that virtue which waits and endures with unflinching tenacity, assured that well-directed and persistent efforts are certain of some victory. There is, it is true, a limit to human power and achievement, and the pupil will often be saved much irritating and fruitless labor, if the teacher will be careful to guard him against any attempt to accomplish impossibilities. But these cases are exceptional, and seldom arise to disturb the work of the hour. It is more frequently true, that an intense desire and a resolute purpose supplement each other, and are in themselves the prophecies of fulfillment. The pupil should, by patient and assiduous toil, be conducted into an assured consciousness that he grows only as he is shaken thoroughly by difficulties that demand his best and most vigorous effort, and he should be irresistibly encouraged by a sort of moral compulsion to return again and again to the work in hand, until the conclusion of the whole matter becomes a visible thing. The satisfaction of success is a most thorough preparation for renewed effort. In all great enterprises, whether of peace, or of war, whether in the interest of science or of art, whether of social, or moral questions, whether in reforms of church or of government, or whatever else is projected that mankind may be better and happier, the purpose has become an accomplished fact by virtue of this moral power in men, that will not suffer them to forego the end until every prize is secured. It is that spirit that impels men to stand up under a raking fire, exposed to shell and death, obeying in sullen silence and bated breath, the stern command, "File up," until the crisis comes, when statues are converted into terrible engines of power. It is this tenacity of purpose, this stubbornness of perseverance that wins every contest, whether of youth, or manhood, in the class-room, or later life, everywhere, in high estate or low. It is the conqueror of adversity, the master of circumstances, the begotten of the faith and courage that converts repulses and temporary defeat into permanent victory. Pupils need it, teachers need it, the world needs it. It is the stuff of which martyrs are made, and the world's heroes are its debtors. The men and women who have touched mankind by hallowed influences, and lifted them into nobler aims and purposes, have made large drafts upon it. The Great Teacher laid great stress upon this virtue, and pronounced the benediction, and offered the eternal reward to those who run the race even to the end.

But, probably, the most desirable use to be subserved by the recitation, is the cultivation of a love of truth—truth as opposed to all forms of error—truth in thought, in word and in deed; truth as to what one may be to himself and to others; truth as to the whole life, both in its most secret conceptions, and its outward manifestations; fair, concealing nothing, and proving everything. Truth in education is a living principle that exemplifies itself in making individuals better and richer, in all relations, human and divine. It is the sum of all the virtues, the product of all the graces that ennoble and beautify mankind. Men are slaves to the various forms and degrees of error, until the truth comes to set them free, and to lift them into dry places. It is the grace of life, nature's conception as an artist, which clothes all her works as with a halo of loveliness and majesty. It is to the human life what the natural sun is to the life of the earth, converting an otherwise dead waste into countless forms of beauty, and discovering a meaning and grandeur in humanity, as in the world of creation. There is no element of character to which it does not add lustre. It converts courage into heroism, sacrifices everything to conviction, and never permits a traffic with conscience. Morals in culture must largely be the work of the common school, for it is best promoted by instrumentalities that operate most favorably with children. This element of character must be implanted, and fostered, and developed in youth; moral muscle and sinew must be formed and nourished in youth, if we expect manhood to be honored. The men of to-morrow must be trained and drilled in the truth to-day, and instructed in all its aspects, for the great conflict between truth and error is already upon us, and, in our judgment, our people are but illy prepared to maintain a vigorous warfare in defense of high moral or religious principle. We are day by day treacherously robbed of one stronghold and another, because error is made to clothe herself in the garb of truth. We are asked to surrender our birthright for a mess of pottage, and we yield the unrighteous demand in order to put away further the hour of issue, preferring present ease with loss of self-respect, to a future of brilliance and renown through flood and peril. Compromise is characteristic of American life; the *present* is always brought to the front, and hides our true interests. We are suffering to-day from a growing spirit that regards not the rights of others, that prostitutes liberty to license, that seeks the selfish ends of men, and is indifferent to the public good; a spirit that shuts out all moral obligation and makes human appetites and desires a law unto themselves. There has been no time in the history of our country when we had so much to fear from a culture from which every element of morals was carefully excluded. America is to-day in a bondage more terrible, entangled in labyrinths of error, prejudice and bigotry more deadly, more exhaustive of its essential life than was Southern Slavery, and how to extricate ourselves is a momentous question. We are running to materialistic forms of culture in science, to various systems of speculative philosophy, to theories of man's descent, to the so-called phases of life. We are led into ways that are purely intellectual, scientific, or artistic, and are following the things of man's device. We are in a race for supremacy in commerce, engineering skill, and all the appliances of science to the mechanical arts. The most vital interests of humanity are at stake, and questions that affect mankind are constantly presenting themselves for adjudication, and they must be settled by the arbitrament, not, we may hope, of war, but of honest and intelligent counsel; and the parties who shall figure in the midst of these conflicts, are the children to-day in our schools. The world needs fewer arsenals and more "Treaties of Washington;" and mankind may not honor her Cæsars and Bismarcks less, but her Howards and Wilberforces more. Morals, as such, should be the centre of any educational scheme; the point from which we must pass to an ever increasing circle of knowledge and power. If it be cultivated for its own sake, we shall through it, as itself a cultivating agency, attain that power which is the fruit of virtue and goodness. It is impossible to indicate with any degree of minuteness what are the occasions or methods that may be used to develop these virtues in pupils. Formal instruction, perhaps, is the least efficient. Moral lessons never reach the consciousness of the pupil so as to influence his life through set phrases of speech. A thousand instances present themselves to the experience of every teacher, conveying lessons of great moment which he may seize to the infinite profit of the pupil. Every recitation is full of such opportunities, which are rich in a fruitage far beyond its ordinary recognition. These virtues must first be embodied in the teacher, and exemplified by his daily life as a living presence. They should flow out from him as water from a fountain, and should centre in, and radiate from him, as rays of light from a luminous object. It is by an upright life that we teach uprightness, so may we teach any virtue only as that virtue is an element in us. I am assured that the nation's life is nourished in the common schools. Every branch of industry, every occupation of man is directly their debtor. They are the conservators of culture and morals, they uphold the ministry and sustain the press, render possible courts of justice, lift up the ballot-box, preserve the peace of society and dignify the nation. They have a political as well as social significance, and are Christian institutions, and are only possible when truth is their foundation corner. They have a deeper meaning than their mere human side, for they are a manifestation of divine intelligence and goodness, which, under an impulse of divine love, are yet to search out every infinity of man. We are so to consider them, and labor for them as though we recognized the divinity that lies at their centre. They should be long enough that all the virtues may stretch themselves upon them, and wide enough that all the graces may be enfolded within them. Truth does not proclaim any religious creed, but it may insist that the Bible shall be retained in our public schools. A New York riot was only possible because it was first possible for one of her School Principals to say: "The

Bible has not been read in this school for twenty years." Truth is not sectarian, nor bigoted, yet it may demand less corruption in our legislative assemblies and common-council chambers, and that morality shall underlie the administration of all government which shall be for the people. A mob-law can prevail, or threatening communes or wholesale Sunday desecrations obtain, only when our schools are faithless to the truth; truth in morals, truth that shall regard all the rights of civil society, truth that pervades every feature of citizenship and makes every man a king. To what else than the operation of this truth shall we attribute the eminent worth of Dr. ARNOLD's teaching, and the ever widening circle of beneficent influences which he exerted? And in some sense what Dr. ARNOLD was to the boys at Rugby, so may every teacher become who feels the meaning and the majesty of the life that is within him, and who is struggling with heart and soul and strength against whatever is mean, and unmanly, and unrighteous in the world. He must teach them knowledge of themselves, knowledge of one another, and knowledge of a universal Ruler of things, and inspire the faith, and hope, and love that are needed for such knowledge. The truth shall be loved for the truth's sake. Virtue shall be sought after, that it may come to be our life. Our children must meet and decide this great conflict of opinions that in all human probability will convulse the world to its centre. Already, if indications are not delusive, error and prejudice have begun to fortify themselves in their strongholds, and are establishing themselves preparatory to aggressive movements that shall deluge the nation with blood, and wither like a blight many a fair institution of our beloved land, and the issue cannot be evaded except by submission to that most ignoble of all bondage, moral servitude. It is the training of to-day that prepares for to-morrow. There is no way in which to meet this contest of ideas but to educate our people, our children, into the broad principles of truth. Our safety lies in a thorough moral instruction, and the general prevalence of truth. Finally, friends, if there be any virtue in pure, honest lives, in brave, patient hearts, think on these things.

On motion, the reporters of the proceedings of the Convention, were made honorary members of the Association.

Adjourned.

EVENING SESSION, THURSDAY, AUGUST 24.

President Pickard called the Association to order.

Prof. S. H. White, of Illinois, proposed the names of the following gentlemen as honorary members of the Association, and they were elected:

Hon. B. GRATZ BROWN, Missouri; Prof. W. B. SANGSTER, Ontario, Canada, and HENRY SHAW, Esq., St. Louis.

President Pickard announced that Hon. THOMAS ALLEN, President of the Iron Mountain Railroad, had invited the members of the Association to make an excursion to Iron Mountain over his road on Friday.

Prof. S. G. Williams, of Cleveland, Ohio, read the following paper on the "Place and Use of Text-books."

PLACE AND USE OF TEXT-BOOKS.

Text-books are a means for gaining certain desirable knowledge, and securing certain desirable results in the cultivation of the mental faculties. Their right use is such a use as will most effectually and completely attain these results. To use them in the wrong place, or too exclusively, to make of them an end rather than a means, to use them without regard to proper method, or for the development of memory to the neglect of the understanding, or to leave the student under the impression that the mere outlines of subjects which they give are complete and exhaustive presentations of such subjects, is to misuse text-books.

There is doubtless much difference of opinion among earnest and thoughtful educators as to the extent to which text-books should be used, as well as with regard to the manner of their use; but it is possible that a portion of this variance may arise from not duly observing the different mental attitudes which the student should hold to both teachers and text-books, at different stages of his mental growth.

It will be convenient to consider the periods of complete student life, as four; though it is proper to remark, that, like all results of growth, they shade into each other by almost imperceptible gradations. In these several periods, the relations which the pupil holds, or should hold, to text-books and teachers, are essentially different. In the first period, the teacher is much the most prominent figure, while the use of books varies from nothing to but little, for the obvious reason that the child is still unable to read them. The duty of the instructor at this stage is to direct the eager self-activity of the pupil to useful and systematic exertions, and to put him in the way of using books, as one of the means of pleasurable activity. Probably no teacher here is so far behind the age as to neglect the use of the black-board, or some better apparatus in giving the child its first lessons in reading. Whatever, too, may be the clash of theoretical views, as to object-teaching, doubtless none of us overlook the immense value of natural objects, judiciously and systematically used at this period, in giving the child its first definitely formulated notions of size, weight, form, color, number, etc.; in furnishing him with those fundamental ideas, and training him to those habits of definite sensuous observation, which are a necessary preliminary to the successful study of all science; and in engaging him in the definite and connected use of language about things which interest him. In truth, for a long period in a child's mental history, the only text-book that could well be used, would be a reading-book. Yet, even here, it may be doubted, in the light of the successful experience of some of you, whether some of the excellent periodicals for children now issued, would not furnish quite as good and appropriate reading matter, at no added cost, and with the additional attraction to a young child of a frequent change in the individual book from which his lessons are given. It will, I think, be quite safe to predict that a few years hence, comparatively few of our best schools will use text-books, technically so-called, during the first years of the pupil's course.

What has been termed the second period in the pupil's progress, is that in which text-books legitimately hold the largest place. In this, the child, having learned to read and converse easily, and having gained some familiarity with the elements of number, and with the fundamental notions of geography, is prepared to use books as a means of acquiring essential knowledge, and of gaining the still more essential command of every mental power. He is to become acquainted with the earth's features, phenomena and productions, and with their more obvious causes; to master the science of numbers and their applications, and to familiarize himself with the laws of his own language, and with its correct use; and he is to do all this in such a way that the power to use all his acquisitions shall be more than commensurate with their extent, so that his perceptions shall be swift and accurate, his memory sure, because based on the most wide-reaching and enduring relations; his imagination vivid, and his judgment and ability to reason rightly as sound as his degree of maturity will permit. It ought to be superfluous to add that all this can be accomplished by no blind adherence to the words of any possible text-book; that if these—which no one will deny to be the legitimate results of good intermediate and grammar-school training—are to be reached, text-books must be held rigidly to their true place as an exceedingly useful means, but subordinate always to the intelligence of the thoroughly trained, judicious and learned instructor; that the text-book should furnish subject-matter, while the teacher should supply proper method, supplement the unavoidable deficiences of books, ensure proper training, and thereby secure culture. The methods which the teacher should at this stage adopt, ought, I have no doubt, to be preeminently objective in their character, to the end that clear ideas may, if not always precede, at least invariably accompany and vivify the otherwise dead and unfruitful word. Too often, unhappily, an opposite course is pursued. The words of the text-book are made the alpha and omega of every lesson; the teacher, whether from ignorance or indolence, it matters little which, abdicates his rightful throne as instructor, and sinks into a mere listener to *memoriter* recitations; and, if the pupil gains any really useful knowledge, secures any intellectual discipline aside from the strengthening of the lowest type of memory, it is due rather to the inherent vitality of young minds, growing in spite of obstacles, than to the intelligent effort of the teacher.

In the third period of pupilage—which properly includes the course of our best high schools, and the lowest classes of colleges—while the relation of the pupil to the teacher is but little changed, save in a lessened and constantly diminishing degree of dependence, his use of text-books should, it would seem, be very considerably modified. He should now be encouraged and required to treat his books merely as a text for his own more extended research; testing, and supplementing their statements by experiments and reference to other sources of information, thus learning to study, not so much books, as subjects by the aid of books, and other appropriate means; to form and test opinions by trial and comparison of authorities, rather than to take opinions ready formed. What other purpose have the costly libraries, cabinets, and laboratories of high schools and colleges, than to encourage and promote this very method of working?

In algebra, indeed, the text-book may form the subject-matter of the pupil's private study; but his skill and thoroughness should, in all cases, be tested in the class-room by examples which he has had no opportunity to study, as should also be done in arithmetic. But has that pupil attained the true purpose of geometrical study who has only recited glibly demonstrations, thought out by others, without being subjected to adverse criticism, or required to devise and defend other methods of proof, or even to apply practically what he is supposed to have learned? All our scientific text-books are but outlines, more or less complete, of the subjects they present; even the best of them contain many errors of opinion or of fact; they all embody the results of research and experiment, in which the experiment and research are vastly more important to the student than the result; are, indeed, the only sure means of fixing the truth indelibly, and making it practically useful, while promoting besides skill in scientific method with the culture incident thereto. Is not, then, the usual mode of studying the natural sciences to content oneself with a low form and degree of good, where much higher ought by all means to be striven for and attained?

In the study of languages possibly text-books are more judiciously used; though the vicious practice of learning tables of declension and conjugation, without at once fixing the meaning and use of every form, as soon as learned, by embodying it in appropriate sentences, and of committing to memory abstract rules of syntax before the need of their use occurs in the pupil's study; the almost universal use, especially in higher classes, of books crowded with translations; the too prevalent lack of polish and elegance permitted in translation, thus missing one great purpose of lingual study, and the common usage of examining students only on matter which they have previously read, thus encouraging them to study merely a few passages of authors, rather than language through the medium of the best authors, are things which are liable to severe and just criticism.

The truth with reference to all the foregoing has been justly summed up by CARLYLE in one of his pithy sentences, which might well be made an educational maxim: "He who has done nothing has known nothing," to which he adds, "If thy knowledge be real, put it forth from thee; grapple with real nature; try thy theories there and see how they hold out." It is only by the intelligent and appropriate use that the student is required to make of all his acquisitions, that his labor can be made to tend to skill, his knowledge to ripen into wisdom and to bear fruit in power.

It is evident, then, that the work of the third period, if properly conducted, should tend gradually to free the pupil from his dependence on text-books and teachers, to emancipate him from the condition of pupilage, and to make him more and more a self-directing student, an independent thinker and investigator.

In the fourth period, therefore, which should certainly include the higher classes in all our colleges, and all the classes of the real university, if subjects of study be prescribed at all, the student should be left in a great measure free to choose his own mode of study and investigation, and to select his own manuals to serve as a guide in his work, and as an index to original authorities; while the learned professor, holding the place to which his wisdom and experience may rightfully entitle him, is at hand to bestow that judicious advice which young men so often need from those more mature, to direct into new lines of research, to suggest sources of needed information that might otherwise be overlooked, and to see that the work of the student is honestly and legitimately done. The daily meetings in the class-room would then naturally be occasions for the comparison and possibly conflict of views obtained from various sources, accompanied by suggestive remarks from the professor embodying the fruits of his own research, with hints to aid the student in his future work, rather than daily seasons of pumping from a number of shallow reservoirs a certain prescribed modicum of matter daily imbibed for the process from a given book. Whether the course here suggested or the one usually pursued would best conduce to mental health and growth, and which course would most surely tend to raise up a class of vigorous, independent, and candid thinkers, men whose views should be held and expressed with modesty because they know through how great conflicts of opinion truth must ever be reached, are questions which are submitted to the judgment of candid and thoughtful men. The one course would treat students like men, with the duties and responsibilities of men, and intent to prepare for themselves a bright and useful future; the other looks upon them as boys, and too often receives from them the treatment of very rough boys. The one would make of the professor a friendly adviser and director of studies, the other makes of him a final drill-master when the time for drill has ceased, and puts him in a position where he is too often distrusted and disliked. The one would base the degrees it confers on a rigid and impartial examination upon the subjects requisite thereto, and thus make them certificates to large and generous scholarship; the other too generally bestows them for a stated amount of attendance on certain routine duties, and the mere nominal pursuit of certain prescribed books.

To sum up, then, this brief discussion, the opinion is advanced for your candid consideration, that, in the primary stage of the pupil's progress there is little or no legitimate place for the use of text-books; that, in the intermediate and grammar-school stage text-books should furnish the chief subject-matter for the pupil's study, and for the teacher's judicious use in training him to proper habits of thought and giving him needed and usable information; that in the high school and lower collegiate stage the text-book should be used rather as suggestive of topics for study than as a final source of information should be made an *occasion* for a course of research which should become even more extended with every added year; while in the final stage of the student's career, he should be expected not only to work up his subjects after his own fashion, but to seek for himself under proper guidance, the very source from which his materials may be derived. This would be to throw the pupils, with every advancing year, more and more upon their own unaided resources. This would be to aim finally to make of them,

> "Men, our brothers, men the workers, ever reaping something new;
> That which they have done, but earnest of the things that they shall do."

DISCUSSION OF MR. WILLIAMS' PAPER.

The President, (in response to a call from several persons in the audience for Hon. N. A. CALKINS, Superintendent of Primary Schools of New York City,) desired Mr. CALKINS to open the discussion of Mr. WILLIAMS' paper.

Mr. Calkins. Mr. President: That you have called upon one to discuss this question whose experience and duties have been chiefly with schools where Readers are almost the only text-books used, is a surprise to me. In the schools under my supervision may be found a thousand teachers, giving instruction to fifty thousand children daily. The pupils are supplied with slates and pencils, and those who are able to use them with reading books, while the teachers use black-boards and chalk. Instruction in reading is commenced on the black-board, and continued from books; spelling is taught by using the black-board, slates, and reading-books; geography by means of charts, globe, outline-maps, and black-board; arithmetic by the use of black-board and slates; object lessons by means of various objects, pictures, charts, black-board, etc.

During the first two years of school attendance the pupils do not use any books except those for reading. During the third year in school the use of other text-books is gradually commenced, but it is expected that the subject of the lesson will be first taught without the book. During these first three years in school, the pupils are taught to read through the first three books of the series of readers, also to spell and define the words of the reading lessons, and other words in common use. They are taught arithmetic through the simple rules, including the common tables of weights and measures; also object lessons, including form, color, qualities, objects, animals, plants, etc. Instruction in eography embraces the localities near the place in which the pupils live, the shape of the earth, locations of the warm and cold regions, and of the countries from which are obtained those productions that are most commonly used for food, clothing, etc.; also the definitions pertaining to the shapes of land and water.

Instruction is given in all subjects, except reading, without the use of text-books. The aim is to train the pupils first in habits of observing and thinking, and to teach them the rudiments of each subject in such a manner as to prepare them for an intelligent use of books. Gradually, as the pupils acquire the ability to use books for the purpose of gaining knowledge pertaining to the subject about which the teacher is imparting instruction, they come to depend more upon books as the source of information.

I believe that pupils should be trained to regard the use of books as only *one* of the modes of gaining knowledge; also to use them in such a manner as to acquire correct habits of study—habits of studying them for the purpose of obtaining a knowledge of subjects, rather than for memorizing words.

In all the work of instruction I believe that teachers should first present the *subject* orally, and thus lead the pupils to give more attention to that than to the words of books.

In conclusion, Mr. President, I will only add that I approve of the views set forth in the Paper just read.

Prof. Woodward, of Washington University, Missouri, while agreeing with a large portion of the essay, dissented from the remarks made in regard to professional students. His own experience, both in studying and teaching, went to show that if we rely upon lectures, notes, oral instruction, etc., in the study of engineering, medicine, etc., for a thorough mastery of the subject, we will surely fail.

Hon. W. T. Harris, Superintendent of schools, St. Louis, continued the discussion, as follows:

MR. CHAIRMAN:

When one is defending a particular side he is apt to exaggerate his own advantages and decry those of his opponents. When one praises the system of text-book instruction he is prone to select as his model a most excellent teacher, and as a contrast to this he portrays the oral teacher as one of the weaker order, full of whims and caprices not controlled and balanced by the use of a text book. A good teacher on the one side is contrasted with a poor one on the other side. A defender of the oral system paints for us a paragon of learning and erudition, inspired with earnestness and enthusiasm, standing before her class and awakening them into a new life; on the obverse he paints a dull, hard pedant who insists on the pupils committing to memory and reciting the mere words of the book without examination into their use or meaning. The mere cramming of words is the only text-book system he will allow you to mention.

I am not a believer in this kind of warfare. It is not conducive to good understanding. The one who shall convince his opponents must not misrepresent them. This morning I heard a lady (MRS. SMITH) define with the greatest fairness and justice the positions of the two sides in this controversy. And I for one am willing to say with her that the good teachers of either method reach a certain standard that implies unquestioned excellence.

The best teachers approach one lofty standard. Descending on either side we find the mere "hide-bound pedant" whose teaching if oral is devoid of all system and a mere "pouring in process," or if he uses text-books he requires of the pupils only the mastery of the outside shell of learning and is content to let the kernel escape. Fed on wind—"mouthfuls of spoken wind" are mere words—the poor text-book crammed pupils leave school with disgust for books; in the same predicament are the pupils who are be-lectured and be-catechized until their whole intellectual activity is brought into play merely to remember what is told them.

What we desire to produce by our school education is, the independent thinker and investigator. But the investigator must be a scholar. If he sets out to discover for himself, before he has availed himself of the knowledge already extant, he may waste a whole life-time, rediscovering facts and truths well known ever since the time of ARISTOTLE.

Education consists, first, in giving the pupil the realized wisdom of the race. He must have access to, and obtain the mastery over what has already been discovered by his fellow-men. The record of all this is contained in the printed book. Not the product of the labors of one individual or of one time, but the product of the labors of all men, through all time. Let the pupil master the printed page, and he can avail himself not only of his own senses, but of the senses of all mankind, in all ages.

Is it not clear, then, that by far the most important thing in school education, is to teach the pupil how to gain knowledge from books? He must learn to read, and to understand what he reads; to compare one statement with another, and to sift out the last grain of truth involved in the chaff-husks of the exposition.

When the pupil has learned how to gain knowledge from books independently, the school is no longer necessary for him. He goes into the library, and may become learned for himself. Around its walls there rise, tier above tier, the stored records of Science, of Poetry, of the Arts. The school has given him the key to all this. Just as the organist has learned to command the entire resources of his great organ, its banks of keys, its various stops and swells, so the pupil has learned to command the resources of the library if he has been well taught.

No system of instruction in our schools would be worth anything, whether it were called "text-book," or "oral," if it did not teach the pupil how to use the printed page so as to gain intellectual nourishment therefrom. To give the pupil the ability to use the printed page to the best advantage, I consider the great object of the instruction in our schools. For this purpose I think the pupil should have a book placed in his hand as soon as he enters school. He should be taught to use it correctly from the very beginning. He should not be allowed to memorize it, but be required to understand it thoroughly and critically, and to make practical application of all topics treated therein. He should be educated so as to be the master of the book and not its slave. The book is the greatest tool invented by man for his aggrandizement. By it the achievements of all become the possession of each. Let us then, in our schools, not lose sight of this momentous fact. The teacher cannot give the pupil the skill to use this potent instrumentality by a mere cramming process. Unless the pupil is taught to digest his book-knowledge he cannot use it to advantage. For this purpose, oral methods come in, and the recitation should be conducted by the teacher without a text-book in hand. A recitation should be a vigorous discussion, wherein pupils and teacher participate, and all phases of the lesson are passed in review, and each statement criticised and explained, first by one then by another, until it is vividly conceived by each pupil in all its relations.

Thus all that is claimed as the province of the oral method belongs to the text-book method, and *vice versa.*

Major Merwin of the "Journal of Education," St. Louis, spoke in favor of the new departure from the blind use of text-books and out of the ruts in which they had gradually run. His remarks were frequently applauded.

Hon. A. J. Rickoff, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio, supported the principles enumerated in Mr. WILLIAMS' paper.

Hon. W. D. Henkle, of Ohio, said:

I do not rise to discuss the paper, but to give a word of caution. This caution was suggested to my mind by the remarks of the gentleman on my left (MR. MERWIN), whom you cheered so lustily. Do you know the reason you cheered him? Was it emotion? or was the cheering the result of *reason!* [Prolonged cheers.] The gentleman is strongly opposed to *routine.* I am in favor of *ruts.* I have a lecture entitled "A Plea for Ruts." The problem is "to find out the good ruts." We should not find ourselves as far away from St. Louis at the end of twenty-four hours if the locomotive and cars were not constrained to run along a fixed track. The number of yards of fabric woven would not be so great if it were it not for the routine of the looms.

There is also danger of the routine so much dreaded by the gentleman even in oral instruction. Oswego teachers have expressed to me their annoyance at the fact that their pupils reproduce on their work the identical object-lessons witnessed at Oswego. I cannot better illustrate this point than by giving an incident related to me, Mr. President, by yourself:—"Two of our Ohio superintendents were about to visit a certain school-room together. One said to the other that he would like to bet that if they should call for an object-lesson, he could tell what it would be. The other asked him what he supposed it would be. He replied that the lady would first produce a thimble and develop the idea, an inside, outside, the little holes, etc.; and that, next, she would take a box and develop the fact that it had an outside, inside, a bottom and sides." After listening for a while to the school exercises, they requested the teacher to give an object-lesson. She expressed perfect willingness to comply with the request and immediately began to fumble in her pocket, and brought out a thimble, and gave the predicted object-lesson. After she had finished this, they requested another lesson. She assented, and took a box that fortunately was near at hand and gave the second predicted lesson.

A teacher of genius will use both text-books and oral lessons aright.

Mr. CARTER and Mr. SLADE, of Illinois; Mr. PHELPS, of Minnesota; Mr. BULKLEY, of New York, and Mr. WILLIAMS, of Ohio, took part in the discussion on the subject of the use of text-books.

This discussion was followed by general remarks on the progress of Education in the States represented by the speakers. Mrs. STONE, of Connecticut; Mr. PHELPS, of Minnesota, and Mr. HENDERSON, of Arkansas spoke.

Hon. John Monteith, Superintendent of Public Instruction of Missouri, being called upon, said:

I certainly should be faithless to the trust reposed in me as a representative of the school interests of Missouri, were I not to say, in behalf of all our people, that we have been made glad by the presence of the National Teachers' Association in the city of St. Louis. The only reflection which comes to us now is that which came to certain people of Ephesus once, when a distinguished individual was about to leave that city. You have all, doubtless, become convinced that the people of the West are a people of extraordinarily magnificent expectations. You have heard it already said, that we in St. Louis expect to be the future great city of the world. But, my friends, we are not a boastful people. We show our belief by our acts. My history in Missouri covers a remarkable progress, as magnificent in its proportions as the expectation to which I have already made reference. Within that history I have known the school-teacher hunted out of town because he had introduced a new text-book. They told him that he must leave town with his Yankee t-r-i-x, meaning *school furniture.* Now, to-day, look at us. Only a fortnight since we went up to Warrensburg and laid the corner-stone of a normal-school building, for which the State of Missouri has made the magnificent appropriation of $200,000. [Applause.] The people of Johnson county showed their appreciation of the cause of education by going to attend that ceremony ten thousand strong. In a week or two we are to lay the corner-stone of another normal school building, which is to cost $125,000. We are laying in rock our appreciation of the importance of the public-school system to the future of Missouri.

Our generous mother Government has given us five and a half millions of acres of land, which, if properly sold, at the price of a dollar and a half per acre, would render the school fund sufficient to maintain all the schools of the State eight months in a year. We have a tremendous work on our hands, to recover all the lands that have been squandered, and the moneys that have been swindled out of the public-school fund.

That is the work we intend to do, as far as we can. We intend further, after building our high schools and our normal schools, to put our university at the head of the great public-school system of the State.

And now, to-morrow we want you, and I believe you also wish, to visit one of the most interesting parts of the State of Missouri, to see what magnificent wealth we possess beneath our soil. You are going to Iron Mountain, not hardly a mountain in size, but a sandy red hill. But it is what we are going to make our public-school system, iron from the bottom up. [Applause.] Missouri is laid upon iron and rock, and we shall never be shaken in our purpose.

I wish to express my hearty thanks that you have brought us so many pleasant faces and words, and I thank you from the bottom of my heart. Shall I not say that we all believe in a text-book, and in the pages of that text-book is written the great lesson of American destiny that you are bound to teach to the children of the land? You, and those whom you represent, are the nation's builders—for the nation is to be built of men and women, and you are the makers of those men and women. [Applause.]

Prof. S. H. White, of Illinois, offered a resolution which was adopted, to make the following gentlemen of St. Louis honorary members of the Association:

Hon. Felix Coste.
Hon. Thomas Allen.
Hon. Thomas Richardson.
William D. French, Esq.
Joshua Cheever, Esq.
William C. Wilson, Esq.
M. J. Leipman, Esq.
Henry Hieman, Esq.
Gen. Clinton B. Fisk.

Mr. Henkle, of Ohio, presented the following resolutions adopted by the Newspaper Representatives, in a meeting held to-day:

Resolved, That, the Press Reporters and Correspondents are under many obligations to the Officers of the Association for their successful endeavors in affording the Press representatives every possible facility for placing before the quarter of a million readers of the newspapers here represented, every fact, incident, and transaction of the Convention:

To the President and Secretaries of the General Association, the thanks of the Press are especially due for their patience, impartiality and kindness in treating the reportorial contest and strife for knowledge.

Mr. Henkle also offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That, this Convention recommend to the several State Conventions of the counties, to select and send delegates to the next National Convention, and would request through the Educational Bureau at Washington, that all the States call State Conventions, so that a complete representation be secured from every part.

Mr. Bulkley, of New York, from the Committee on Resolutions, reported as follows:

Resolved, That the National Educational Association in Convention assembled, hereby tender to the City Authorities and Board of Education of St. Louis, thanks for the use of the Polytechnic Institute, in which we have enjoyed unequaled facilities for the transaction of the business of the Association:

That our thanks are due, and are gratefully tendered to the Board of Education, to W. S. Harris, Superintendent of the Schools of this city, to J. B. Merwin, Esq., editor of the Journal of Education, to the Committee of Arrangements, and to the citizens generally, for untiring efforts to render our session pleasant and profitable, and for their generous hospitality:

That with pleasure we acknowledge our obligations to the Press of this and other cities, for the interest they have generously taken in our efforts to promote the cause of Education by attending our session, reporting our proceedings and publishing our reports:

That we tender to Mr. Shaw of the Botanical Garden, our hearty thanks for his invitation to visit his grounds; and that we shall ever remember with delight this charming spot, in which nature and art are most beautifully blended to please, instruct, and ennoble the hearts of all those who are so fortunate as to share in and enjoy this visit of such uncommon interest and beauty:

That we tender our thanks to the Directors of those railroads, and steamboat proprietors which have given the members of the Association tickets at reduced price, in traveling over their roads, and by their steamers:

That we acknowledge our indebtedness to the Hotels and Boarding-houses for the reduction of fare, and generous accommodation during our visit to their city:

That, to the public libraries which have thrown open their doors and tendered to us the use of their rooms, we gratefully acknowledge our obligations, and tender our thanks:

That we tender thanks to Mr. Pickard, President of the Association, to the Secretary, Treasurer, and Heads of the several Departments and other officers of the Association for their untiring efforts to secure the great objects of the Association, and that we assure them of our sympathy and regard for the able and satisfactory manner in which they have severally discharged their onerous duties.

Closing remarks were made by the presiding officers of the several sections.

President Tappan, of Kenyon College, spoke for the Department of Higher Instruction. In that Department this first session was an experiment; it has been entirely successful. The attendance has been large, the papers interesting, and the discussions spirited and general. The Central College Association, which has included the colleges of these central States, has to-day resolved to give up its organization, as this Department of Higher Instruction better answers the purpose.

President Tappan called the particular attention of the Association to the paper that had been read by General Eaton. Those members who have not heard it, ought not to fail to read it when published with our proceedings. One part of the paper forcibly and simply defines the duties which every teacher of the higher grades owe to the whole profession. These passages especially were commended to all teachers, because the President believed they expressed exactly the feeling which animates the Professors and High school teachers who are members of this Association. This excellent paper ought to be published for the benefit of all teachers.

President Pickard then closed the first session of the National Educational Association with the following address:

When one year ago, I was selected as your presiding officer, I confess to having misgivings, and much fear as to the result.

My best efforts have been given in co-operation with the gentlemen who have presided over the several sections to a proper arrangement of exercises, and to the comfort of all who have been in attendance.

Whatever of success has followed, is due to your courtesy and forbearance. The saddest thought with me to-night is, that I shall see your faces no more this side the silent river.

Our noon-tide meal is over. The sun hasteth to his going down. Let us arise and gird ourselves to the work before us, that in the land to which we haste, we may find fruit of this day's work.

Gratitude is said to be the memory of the heart. This you all have from me. "Farewell" is too formal a word. You shall have an old-fashioned "Good-Bye."

With the singing of a verse of *America*, we will close this session of the National Educational Association.

The audience rose and sang a verse of "America," and the meeting adjourned *sine die.*

Department of Elementary Schools.

ADDRESSES AND JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS

AT THE

SESSION HELD IN ST. LOUIS

August 22, 23, 24, 1871.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

The Department of Elementary Schools of the National Educational Association met after the adjournment of the General Association, August 22, 1871.

In the absence of the President elect, E. A. **Sheldon**, of Oswego, New York, who was unable to attend the Convention, A. C. **Shortridge**, of Indianapolis, Indiana, became the presiding officer. The Secretary being also absent, L. E. **Cook**, of St. Louis, was elected to fill the vacancy, and **John** G. **Anderson**, of New York, and Mr. **Hamilton**, of Missouri, selected as Assistant Secretaries.

It was decided that a member of the General Association should be also a member of the Elementary Section.

An Enrolling Committee, consisting of the following members, was appointed for the purpose of ascertaining and recording the names of the members of the Section:

Mr. S. H. **Cheney**, Mr. **Bell**, Miss **Hattie Cummins**, Miss **Rose Wright**, and Miss **Motbee**.

Mr. **Cheney** was appointed a member of the General Committee on Situations for Teachers.

Mr. Cruttenden, of New York, offered a resolution, which was adopted, to limit the persons appointed to participate in discussions, to ten minutes time, and other speakers to five minutes.

The Section then adjourned until half-past two o'clock

AFTERNOON SESSION

President Shortridge called the Section to order at the appointed hour, and introduced the Hon. E. E. **White**, of Columbus, Ohio, who delivered a lecture on the "First Steps in Teaching Reading," accompanied by illustrations on the black-board. The following is an abstract of the lecture:

Mr. White began by saying that he consented to present this subject on the condition that he might do so in the form of a brief unwritten lecture.

He said that the manner in which a child learns words in the nursery, suggests the true method of teaching primary reading. A little boy sees a top spin. He watches it; reaches for it; handles it; tries to spin it. As soon as he has an idea of the top and its use, he wishes to know its name. He hears the word and tries to speak it. When he knows the top and can easily speak its name, he has mastered the word *top*, and a new word is added to his growing vocabulary. Here are two steps—1. The gaining of the idea which the word top represents. 2. The recognition of this word when spoken and its utterance. Thus the child learns to speak.

The next fact considered, was the two existences of words. They exist as *sounds* and as *forms*. In speaking, we use words as sounds; but in reading, we deal with them as forms. In silent reading we simply recognize these forms; but in oral reading, we translate, so to speak, the forms into sounds. It takes some time for the little child to attach the idea directly to the word as a form. The form only suggests the sound, and this represents the idea. Thus, to the child, the printed word is but the symbol of a symbol.

These facts indicate that there are three natural steps in teaching a child to read a word. These three steps relate to the *idea* which the word represents; to the word as a *sound;* to the word as a *form.*

When the word as a whole is thus taught, it should next be analyzed; first as a *sound* and then as a *form;* that is, the child should be taught to spell words, first by the *elementary sounds* which compose them when spoken, and then by the *letters* which form them when written or printed.

These steps in word-teaching were thus represented on the black-board:

Steps in Word-teaching.

- 1\. The word *as a whole.*
  - 1\. The *idea* which it represents.
  - 2\. The word as a *sound.*
  - 3\. The word as a *form.*
- 2\. The *analysis* of the word. . . . .
  - 1\. As a *sound*—by its elementary sounds.
  - 2\. As a *form*—by the names of its letters.

It is thus seen that neither the word, method, nor the phonic method, nor the letter method, is the true method of introducing the child to the art of reading. Each is but a step in that complete method, which may properly be called the *Natural* method.

The speaker remarked that the above order is to be followed only in the *first lessons* in reading. It is the initiatory method. Soon the child will be able to learn new words from the letters which compose them, and the earlier this ability is imparted the better, provided the natural order is not violated. The second step, the analysis of words, should not be long postponed, and it will usually be well to teach the analysis of the word as a *sound* before introducing the form. Indeed, the skillful teacher will find little difficulty in combining all these steps in the same lesson, and from the first. Most teachers, however, succeed better by postponing the analysis of words as forms (letter spelling), until the pupil can read a few little sentences with fluency and natural expression. This can usually be done in from three to four weeks. The exclusive use of the word-method for several months is a great mistake.

The speaker emphasized the importance of introducing the child to new words through the *ideas* which they express. This cannot always be done, since the meaning of some words can only be learned through their use; but in the child's *first* lessons, this order may generally be observed. Whether the idea or the word is first taught, the idea should not be ignored. Few habits are more fatal to scholarship than the practice of handling words as forms and sounds without reference to the ideas which they symbolize, and especially is this true when such parrot habit is formed in the mastery of the primer. It is well nigh a crime for a primary teacher to divorce words from their ideas. When the tongue utters a word, the idea should flash into the mind. The symbol should be filled with the thing symbolized.

The foregoing is but an imperfect outline of the lecture. The speaker occupied less than thirty minutes.

Prof. C. C. Rounds, of Maine, opened the discussion by giving an account of the successful results obtained in his family, and in the model school by a trial of Dr. E. LEIGH'S method. He stated that this method could be used so as to combine the three methods previously mentioned; that the printed page should be illustrated; that there should be a transition from the picture to the form, and from the form to the sound, so that when the child had advanced to the second reader, he might be enabled to help himself.

Children who had gone through their phonic readers did not know their letters, and, therefore, we are compelled to use the word and sound in connection with the phonic. The teacher must excite the interest of the child by the picture, as in our primary books. The picture gives the word, and the word the thing. The word may then be analyzed and the sound of each letter given. In this manner we enable the child to observe progress, and the sing-song, wearisome methods too common in our schools are avoided. The change from phonic type to the ordinary type is quite rapid. The spelling follows as quite an easy matter. It improves the style of reading as well as rapidity, and they may be taught to read much younger

Mr. Calkins, Superintendent of Primary schools of New York, coincided with Mr. WHITE. He thought it necessary to arrive at some manner of using the method. He gave as a good method, to have each child bring a new word, and have the teacher put it on the board, then, talk over the meaning of the words, pronounce them slowly, then repeat the letters in the words. He stated that the *manner* of carrying out any plan was of greater importance than the plan itself. He believed that teachers devoted too much time to the *form* and not enough to the *idea*

Hon. John Hancock, City Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio, held that the method which Mr. WHITE had illustrated, was founded upon strictly philosophical principles, as far as it went, and that the child does not need, and ought not to have a vocabulary beyond its wants; that rhetorical or emotional reading is essential; that we must reach the child's emotional nature—perhaps he may not be taught to read dramatically, but he can be taught to read with feeling.

The meaning of words should be taught. In order to secure satisfactory results in higher reading, we should lay the foundation in the lower grades. He favored the object first, and then the word. The words must next be associated together, giving emphasis, inflection, etc. It gives the power of expressing the emotional part of reading. Mechanical, intellectual and rhetorical should go hand in hand, that while the child may not read strictly grammatically, yet the idea of the subject may be perfect.

Mr. Rolfe, of Chicago, was opposed to Mr. WHITE's method.

The discussion was continued, Mr. MORRISON, Mr. HAMILTON, Miss WRIGHT and others participating, until the Section took a recess.

After a recess the Section listened to Mr. D. H. CRUTTENDEN, of New York, upon the "Method of Teaching Language," whose remarks were, in part, as follows:

Spirit manifests itself by Moods and by Ideas. There are two distinct methods of manifesting spirit—namely, by *Mood* language, and by *Thought* language. The elements of Mood-language, are, 1st, Attitudes; 2d, Motions; 3d, by Sounds of the voice. Every tone belongs to a particular mood. Teachers should attend to the mood of pupils in the school-room as indicated by attitudes and motions. Pupils should not be kept too long in any one position, for habitual positions may lead to habitual moods. We should not cripple the actions of pupils. Mood-language must be made the basis in teaching language. In teaching thought-language, we must begin with the Unit. The *sentence* is the unit of language. Sentences express *thoughts*. Words do not. Children do not use words alone. It is to be hoped that a pure sentence-method may yet be carried out. The basis in teaching language must rest in the recognition of *Moods* and *Ideas*. Every thought rests upon some *mood*. Mood-language should accompany thought-language. The first thing in teaching thought-language, is to get the learner into the *right feeling*. The teaching of words should be always a *means*, never an end.

The Section then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 23, 1872

The Section met at nine o'clock, and having been called to order by the President, the Enrolling Committee took the names of members present.

Mr. Henry C. Harden, of Sutliff school, Boston, Mass., presented the subject of teaching Drawing, illustrating it on the black-board, with specimens of the drawings of pupils in the Boston schools. Mr. HARDEN's remarks were as follows:

LEARNING TO DRAW.

Children and some others are yet misled by this expression. All marks that have not a definite idea behind them when put upon surfaces, should not be called drawing. They are chiefly meaningless characters. The father and mother of the lines that tell—the essential lines—are thoughts. If we are indisposed to the labor of thinking, we deceive nobody by marks that tell no story.

A drawing is a visible presentation upon a surface of our conception of a form, to which may be added its appropriate lines. In the combination of forms and their parts, relationship is to be continually considered.

Distance, direction, proportion and intensity will express all this. Should we desire to state it yet more briefly, the word is position, for if the position of each part is correct, the former four things are implied.

From this we may be allowed to say, that before entering upon a course called drawing, there should be distinctly in our mind, if we would be good teachers in this department, a clear conception of the object in view—a thorough mastery of position or the power to determine locality, as the key to noting all objects, and thereby the education of the mind in form; also the education of the muscles to represent that form; of the taste in the selection of form; the communication of a high order of pleasure in the contemplation of form, and the discipline to the mind and refinement to the character which serious study gives.

The mind may be early educated in form, to some degree, without the use of the pencil, by the arrangement of objects to represent figures of various proportions; in the use of the knife, the chisel, the clay, etc. All these, and more, systematically and thoughtfully used, will accomplish the end in view to an important degree for many of the practical purposes of life. The objection to the most of them is, that in early instruction, especially of small children, they would be either more inconvenient, dangerous, or expensive, and while, for certain purposes, equal to the representation of form in drawing, they would be inferior for this—the difficulty of their preservation. For forms already represented, serve as guides, and stimulate to emulation.

It is evident that language almost entirely fails to give a tolerably correct notion of objects, the like of which have not been seen. This other language of the crayon and the brush—a universal language (used by civilized and by savage, to a considerable degree, at least), gives it at once. The tools for this picture-writing may be very simple and inexpensive.

The fact that a large part of the work of the world will depend somewhat largely for its excellence upon the keen appreciation of the outline and distinctive marks of objects, leads to the inquiry whether the faculty by which greater excellence may be achieved in most of the many arts, can be early disciplined, and be thereby the means of saving time in technical education.

That it would save much time in every mechanical art, having much to do with form, who can for a moment doubt? Thoughtful mechanics do not doubt it. The testimony so far as taken, is, I think, all one way.

Who is the artistic worker in metal, stone, wood, leather, cloth, or any combination of these? Other things being equal, it is he and she who know what they want in form, and whose blows and cuts reveal to others the forms already present in their own minds. It is those workers, who, for this very reason, make fewest false moves, and so the least waste of time and material.

The finer the art and the greater the skill finally required, the greater the advantage of the early training to reach that skill.

If it could be proved that all young children already have as much of their time occupied in the best possible manner as their fullest health would allow, there would be nothing to be said in relation to this kind of instruction for them. This cannot be proved, I think; for, though in school attendance it is strongly suspected that we are in most of the cities somewhat in excess, yet, of spending the time there in the best manner, though we are now gaining and have gained in the last decade, we have yet something to learn.

The young mind grasps knowledge in the concrete and the use of the senses for this purpose conveys an intense pleasure. Of course, repeated observations will give lasting impressions and the mind will hold what the eye has been trained to see. As drawing is only printing and writing completely filled out, or, if you prefer it, a suitable companion to these, shall we not all soon recognize that fact? It would seem from this and the foregoing that, with children, this is the time to commence its acquisition. If this is so, it becomes us to ask what, from theory and experience of some years, is the way to begin?

The hand is the instrument by which the drawing is to be executed. A child's hand is largely destitute of power, and that power not wholly under the control of the will. It would seem, then, that any simple exercises having for their object the gaining of muscular strength and discipline may be a proper accompaniment to the simple exercises that are to lead to the discovery of the forms of objects. This theory is verified by practice, and it is not to be forgotten that while these little exercises of slides in straight lines, circles, and ovals, will put the hand in all its parts into the best position for drawing—for which we will call this a preparation—they discipline it as well for writing, and printing, and other uses. The form to which we are to try to give expression must have its home in the mind.

All expressions of form must be located somewhere. To determine exactly where we will have them, and thus any point contained in them, requires us to judge of distance. This is not easy except by much practice. Symmetrical forms with like halves in which deviations in this respect will be more readily observed, should, we think, form a series of carefully-taught lessons. These lessons cannot be too elementary. The simple idea of them will not be likely to be too often repeated, and we should so give them that every pupil of the class can see for himself that he has a chance of respectable success.

Let them form a connected series; the second including the first, and so on to an indefinite extent. Perpetual criticism must be their accompaniment, continued illustration of errors and noting of marked successes not left out, and then these multiplying forms having a common object, the development of power to judge of distance and direction, will accomplish their end so unmistakably and thoroughly that subsequent work will have been prepared for, and each stage of the pupil's training being thus dwelt upon and made familiar, the art-knowledge will be as living and real as the most familiar knowledge under the best instruction in any of the other branches.

At the conclusion of Mr. HARDEN's brief essay upon the subject, he indicated the method of giving elementary lessons in the art, by a series of drawings which he had put upon the black-board and accompanying these with question and direction as to a class of children. The first of these lessons conveyed the necessary information to very young children, concerning the right and left sides of the slate, the top and bottom of the same (the slate lying lengthwise before the pupil), and the placing of a dot in the centre of the same. The speaker declared that if this could be done with a fair accuracy in a few lessons that the subsequent progress would be assured. The subsequent lessons included the first with additions, and that it might be plain to all that this ability to draw is as common as the ability to acquire other branches of knowledge, he brought to the convention specimens of the drawing of all the pupils in one of the Primary classes of his district. While these were being shown, together with some of the resulting work in the Grammar grades, a gentlemen of the West brought to the hall specimens of the work of some six hundred of the pupils of Mr. HARDEN's district, every pupil of twelve classes being represented. These specimens were those shown at the May exhibition in Boston, and have found their way to many cities of the country. They embraced the work of children from six to fifteen years of age. It is pertinent to these explanations to say, that this Primary work was conducted on the system exemplified in WM. N. BARTHOLOMEW's Primary charts, the latest introduction to his system of Drawing.

Hon. John Hancock, of Ohio, wished to know at what time in the education of the child he should commence learning to draw from objects. He thought no subject so thoroughly interesting to pupils as drawing, if properly presented. He thought children can draw definite lines as required in the copying of pictures better than the indefinite ones required to express a copy of the object as it exists.

He hoped the day would soon arrive when it would be a necessary qualification in our Common Schools, and therefore, made compulsory to a common-school education by the laws of the State.

Mr. Cruttenden, of New York, followed in remarks sympathetic with the idea of teaching Drawing to all, as a branch of common-school education, but believed that curved lines should enter at once into an elementary course. Men fight in straight lines, move in straight lines under the influences of bad passions; but all the refined sentiments find their appropriate expression in graceful curves. This fact we should not lose sight of, and in our instruction give the children the curves, because of the moral as well as the other educational value.

He thought that of the two theories of teaching drawing, the one beginning with straight lines and the other with curved lines, the latter was the natural and correct method.

Miss Cummings, of Nebraska, desired to inquire:—

1. How long under the system presented before the cultivation of the beautiful forms in nature would appear in the minds of the children?
2. What objections exist to giving them natural forms at first.

Miss Anna C. Brackett, of St. Louis. It seems to me that beauty and grace are found in straight as well as in curved lines, as I think those drawings exhibited by Mr. HARDEN abundantly prove without any word of mine. The gentleman has spoken of the results of the drawing taught in the Boston schools, as found in the grammar schools. I should like to say a word as to the results still higher up, as I saw them in the Girls High and Normal School this summer. I have never seen anywhere such readiness as was exhibited there in illustration. It seemed to be the most natural and easy thing in the world for a pupil while reciting in astronomy, for instance, to draw the figure rapidly, and correctly, and truthfully, without any artificial help. As much harm as good is done by attempting to draw from nature at first, for every error made, renders the same more likely to occur again. I should say no one should attempt to draw from nature till he has gained that command of his hand which will enable him to draw with tolerable accuracy any straight or curved line at will.

What are we to say of theories when these facts (pointing to the six hundred drawings) stand before us. I am abundantly satisfied that success lies in the direction pointed out by the essay. Here is the evidence that not a few, but all, the children of our schools can make that progress in this branch, comparable to the progress in other branches nowengaging their attention.

Mr. Harden arose to make an explanation, and defended the theory of teaching pupils to draw straight lines.

In the absence of Prof. JOHN W. ARMSTRONG, of Fredonia, New York, his paper on "The Philosophy of Methods," was read by Mr. ALCOTT, of Indiana, and elicited great enthusiasm.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF METHODS!

That the Philosophy of Methods is more generally discussed, each succeeding year, is encouraging. It may be possible to teach well without having any ideal of the results to be accomplished, or any understanding of the relation of the means used to the purposes of mental and moral development. But it is unnecessary to prove that teaching will be more certainly and uniformly successful when the reasons for all its processes are known, and their relations to the results desired are clearly understood. Without taking time to set forth what has been done in this direction, or to examine conflicting ideas upon the subject, an attempt will be made to exhibit, in as simple a manner as possible, the *Philosophy* upon which are based those methods of teaching known popularly as "object-methods."

There is a beautiful statue to be copied. It stands upon its pedestal in full view of the artists who desire to reproduce it. One of these is a sculptor, and has before him a block of marble; another is a carver, and has before him a block of wood; a third is a moulder, and has before him a mass of tempered clay. Each has the same model, but a different material. The *moulder* can perform the greater part of his work with his naked hands; a few slender steel, or even wooden instruments being used in finishing certain parts. The *carver* has a more obdurate material. The naked hands are of no avail. The finest cutting instruments of steel are demanded here, of the highest polish and keenest edge. Whether for boring, or carving, the pressure of the hand is generally sufficient to work them. The *sculptor* has a material which cannot be worked by the tools of either the moulder, or carver. Chisels and drills having larger cutting angles, must be driven by blows of the hammer. Everything is different from either of the others and must be used in a different way.

From this illustration may safely be derived the following general conclusions:

1. A worker in any material should understand its nature as fully as possible.
2. The nature of the material determines the instruments, which ought to be used upon it, and also the manner of using them.
3. The worker should have a definite idea of what he expects to make.

It is evident that these propositions apply in horticulture or in training animals, as fully as in mechanics. Improper instrumentalities, or wrong treatment hinders the development of the being, or destroys the hopes of the laborer, however beautiful the design or benevolent the intention. It is inferred, therefore, that if a true "*Philosophy of Methods*" for cultivating and developing the bodies and souls of the children of the land be desired, it must be sought in a careful study of *Child-Nature.*

A few words, comparing generally the natures of minerals, plants and animals, will aid in the more specific study.

It is admitted that every atom of matter has an *immaterial* nature called Force. But experimental investigation soon shows that this term is wholly inadequate to express this nature. It is rather a definite and regularly organized *system of forces.* The moment this nature is understood, it is seen to be the sole cause of every property, mode of action and form of inorganic matter.

If seeds of elm, wheat, millet, and mustard be planted, there is something in each seed which causes it to produce a plant like the one from which it was derived. Therefore, it is concluded that every plant has an *immaterial* nature which determines the mode of growth, size, shape, order of development and functions of the organs and plant, and also its entire history. If this nature needs leaves, it has power to produce them; if it needs flowers, it is able to make them grow; if it needs to climb, it has power to produce the requisite organs. The immaterial nature in the seed, determines all.

Every animal, also, has an *immaterial* nature which determines its entire structure, development, powers and capabilities. This nature, like that of the vegetable, has power to produce any physical organs it may need to meet its wants and carry out the design of its being. If it has a soul which needs eyes or ears, feet or wings, in order to do its work, it has power to make them grow. As a rule, an animal which, in its normal condition has no eyes, has no power to use the knowledge which eyes would furnish; and so of any other organ. Every part of the animal body is an instrument of its immaterial nature, and made by and for that nature.

Man is strictly analogous in these respects. God endows the immaterial nature with power to produce exactly such a system of organs as it needs for the accomplishment of its work. The body is the instrument of the soul, accurately adapted to its wants and capabilities—every organ, every function represents and serves a soul power. It must follow, therefore, that every item of knowledge acquired concerning the functions of the physical organism, will give us some knowledge concerning the nature of the soul. This is a sufficient reason for studying carefully our physical organization.

As a result of this study, with reference to methods of teaching, it is found that the various organs may be arranged in a few general classes, easily demonstrated and defined. First, there is a class of organs whose function it is to *receive* the action of the outer world, whether matter or mind, and transmit it in proper condition to the mind. These organs are called organs of sense, and the mental states they directly induce, are called sensations. Although only five senses are popularly recognized, there are certainly ten, well defined and distinct senses, and probably more. Profound reflection will convince every one that these senses are the *only* avenues from the outer world to the soul.

Since the soul needs and uses every one of these senses, and since the teacher has *no other means of access* to the minds of his pupils, he ought to obtain as exact knowledge as possible of the nature and functions of each sense. It is not well to attribute to one the functions of another, or to compound things which differ. It is easily shown, for example, that it is not the sense of touch which enables even a blind man to distinguish form and size; much less is it true in the case of one who sees. Truth is always a better basis for a system of philosophy, than error.

The material received through the senses is taken by the immaterial nature, and elaborated, under the influence of internal stimulants and motives, only referred to here, and there often follows a tendency to exhibit the results by external action of some kind. A careful examination of the organs employed in this work, will show that the functions of acting upon the outer world, and thereby expressing mental states, belongs *exclusively to the muscles.* Whether the soul express itself by gesticulation or play of countenance, by eloquence of voice or of pen, each is as purely the result of *muscular* action as felling trees or building cities.

It appears from this construction of the being, that the only access which the teacher has to the mind of the pupil, is through the senses, and that muscles are the only means by which he can act upon them.

Multifarious as are the operations of the receiving organs, there is not a case throughout their whole range of capabilities, where one of them can perform the functions of another. It is impossible for a person to hear with his eyes, see with his fingers, or smell with his tongue. It therefore follows that properties of bodies which appeal to one sense, can never be made known through another, or through any combination of other senses, even though aided by all the mental faculties. The one who has never seen, can have no idea of color; the one who has never heard, can have no idea of sound. The organ must be appropriately acted upon, and respond appropriately to that action before the corresponding idea can exist.

Not only is it impossible to convey new *sensations* in any other way than by appealing to the appropriate sense, but it is equally impossible to induce new *mental states* of any kind, except by causing the appropriate faculties to be in that state. The one who has never compared, or judged, or reasoned, cannot be made to understand what the words mean in any other way than by performing the mental acts represented by them. The *emotions* follow the same law. One cannot do the work of another or give any idea of it at all. He who has never loved or hated, despaired or hoped, desired or feared, can have no idea of what such words signify.

It appears, then, that God has created us on such a plan as to render it impossible for one to give another any new elementary idea on any subject whatever, except by furnishing occasion for the existence of the requisite mental experience.

It is not possible, in this short paper, to enter into an examination of the higher nature of man. A few brief statements are all that can be given; showing the relations of the great classes of higher faculties to the body, to each other, and to the higher nature.

A human being consists of:—

1. The ruling and responsible being or essence, represented by the words I, my, and me; as, *I* think, *my* mind, give *me.* For brevity's sake, let it be represented here by the word *Person.*
2. The *senses,* to convey to the Person, accurate knowledge of the action of the outer world upon them.
3. The *intellect,* to elaborate all the material furnished from without by the senses, or from within by the Person.
4. The *desires,* to express internally the states of the Person.
5. The *conscience,* to express internally the moral condition and relations of the Person.

6. The *consciousness*, to being to the Person a correct knowledge of all internal states and acts.

7. The *will*, to carry the commands of the Person to all the acting faculties and organs.

8. The *muscles*, to perform the commands of the Person, as delivered by the will.

The *Person* is free; but it is manifest that the reason and will can no more be free, than the hands or feet.

On principles derived from the study of such a being, an attempt has been made to devise instruments better adapted to the nature of the being, and to construct methods of approach to the minds and hearts of the pupils, more direct and certain than those which are purely empirical. It is a matter of gratification that this presentation of the philosophy of methods, however inadequate, is made where it will be discussed critically and candidly, and where mistakes can be corrected, errors exposed and the cause of education advanced.

To make this work of criticism more pointed, a few words on the functions of language are added. If the views of this paper, on the nature and relations of the receiving and acting organs be accepted, as they are the design and creation of the same being, it is plain that the one class must be exactly adapted to furnish what the other is adapted to receive. In other words, spontaneous expressions of the mental states of one person are as spontaneously interpreted by another. If all language were thus natural, what follows in this paragraph might be left unsaid. But the wants of society in enlightened lands have, at length, made it an exceedingly complicated and artificial instrument. Language must be *learned*. Only the most refined analyst of sounds obtains, even occasionally a definite idea, from listening to any amount of speaking in an unknown tongue.

It follows, therefore, that words have no power to excite *new* elementary ideas upon any subject whatever. When used for that purpose, they must utterly fail. What words can give any idea of an electric shock, to one who never felt it? or of Newton's emotions on seeing the evidence of the truth of his great conceptions, to one who never made a sublime discovery?

But words have uses—have power. They may be successfully employed to re-arrange, classify and systematize the ideas and emotions which the person already possesses, and which he has associated with the words used to represent them. Their magic power can call their constituents from the darkest and most dreamy realms of the kingdom of thought, and bring them trooping to the places assigned them in either the fancies or philosophy of the hour. But they can add no new element. The child with builders' blocks may be taught to build his blocks into many houses, far more beautiful than any which he had ever built before, but not a new block is added to his stock of material by the process, not a new quality is given to any block. In like manner, what beautiful and enduring edifices of thought may arise at the command of the skillful word builder, out of what was little better than rubbish in the fields of knowledge! Vocal language is a wonderful instrument. When a great master sweeps the key-board, what marvelous combinations stir and illuminate the soul! But, if a string be untuned or broken, the master strikes that key in vain. Whatever be his skill, that place in the melody is vacant.

One more principle must be added. 'Tis *exercise* which gives strength. *Observing* cultivates the observing faculties; *reasoning* cultivates the reasoning faculties; *acting* cultivates the acting powers. Those methods, therefore, which furnish the largest amount of appropriate exercise for the various faculties and powers, must be the best. Those methods which reduce the exercise of the pupil to a minimum must be the worst.

For the sake of convenience in discussing this paper, the principal propositions are recapitulated:

1. The nature of the being determines the instruments to be used in its culture, and the mode of using them.
2. The senses of the pupil are the only organs through which the teacher can act upon the mind of the pupil.
3. The muscles of the teacher are the only organs by which he can act upon the pupil.
4. One sense cannot perform the function of another.
5. An idea of a physical, mental, or emotional state, can be obtained only by being in that state.
6. Attempting to give such an idea by any other means, is time and labor lost.
7. A state once experienced, may be named, and the idea referred to afterwards and revived by the name, even after the physical organ necessary to its origin has been destroyed.
8. Words cannot excite in the pupil a new elementary idea, on any subject whatever.
9. The use of words is to excite ideas already associated with them, and thus to aid in re-arranging, classifying and combining them.
10. The faculties are strengthened by appropriate exercise.
11. Methods which furnish this exercise are the best.
12. The philosophy which produces such methods is the best philosophy.

The President, in accordance with a resolution, appointed the following persons a committee to nominate Officers of the Department of Elementary Schools, with instructions to report at the next meeting for the ensuing year:

Mr. CRUTTENDEN, Mr. BEARD, Miss BRACKETT, Mr. SEWALL and Mr. ROUNDS.

The Section adjourned.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 24, 1871.

President Shortridge called the Section to order at nine o'clock, A. M.

Rev. M. H. Smith, of Jefferson City, Missouri, offered a prayer.

The minutes of the two preceding meetings were read by the Secretary and were adopted.

Mrs. Mary Howe Smith, of New York, read the following Paper on "How to Teach Geography."

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The second department is a minute and exhaustive study of each several continent, taking into consideration the physical structure, climate, character and natural resources of each of the regions comprising it, together with their political or statistical geography in detail. This stands to the preceding department in the relation of the completed drawing, with all its details carefully elaborated, to the outline or skeleton drawing.

The third department of geographical science is the study of laws and principles generalized from the immense mass of facts and phenomena which come to our knowledge in the first and second departments. Foremost, in point of order, are the laws pervading the material globe, which constitute general *physical geography*. Next, are the relations of the continents one to the other, and their influence over one another, either through material agencies, as the winds and marine currents, or through the migrations of man. Afterward is noticed the special or individual character of each continent in connection with the history of its people from the earliest times. Here are found the most conclusive evidence of design in the physical arrangements of the globe, demonstrating those arrangements to be not fortuitous, but the result of predetermined plans, by means of which Providence exercises a constant direction over human history. This last phase of our subject enters very largely into the philosophy of history, and forms, in the language of RITTER, a not unacceptable contribution to natural theology. These three departments include the entire range of geographical science. In the first and second we study for facts and phenomena, and the *immediate obvious* relations existing among them, which serve to make them comprehensible and easily remembered. In the third we investigate those grand general laws pervading and controlling all, binding all together in one harmonious unit of knowledge. The first department alone belongs to the more elementary grades of school; the second is appropriate to pupils from thirteen to fifteen years of age; while the third belongs only to high school, or adult pupils.

It may be said that since the majority of pupils in the public schools leave school before the age of thirteen years, they but commence the subject, and gain only the merest fragment of geographical knowledge. In one sense this is true, since they barely make an entrance upon the almost inexhaustible stores of knowledge and means of discipline which the subject embraces; but in another, it is quite untrue, since the outline given in the first department and the fuller course of the second department are alike complete in themselves, each being independent of what follows—as the foundation is complete in itself, though forming an indispensable basis for the superstructure.

The pupil who pursues the subject no further than the first department has a thorough and intelligent knowledge of all the most important facts concerning the character and location of the countries of the earth. His acquaintance with the earth and its inhabitants is less minute, exhaustive, and scholarly, but not necessarily less intelligent than if he had mastered the second department also. Thus, that which the logic of the subject demands as preparatory work in case the pupil is to accomplish the entire course of geographical science, is the very work which it is most important he should do, provided his circumstances forbid him more scholastic training than just to fit him to discharge intelligently and successfully the duties of a practical business life.

Herein does the scientific element of the subject make itself felt in the work of the lower grades of schools, namely: in presenting the most valuable material in the most logical order, thus accomplishing the greatest possible benefit within a given time. For those who can have but a very short school course, it selects from the immense mass of facts which might be presented that which is in its own nature most important to be known—that which is most fundamental and vital in the subject, and which, therefore, constitutes a frame-work around which the many items to be gained by misscellaneous reading, popular lectures, occasional journeys, etc., may arrange themselves in permanent and constantly increasing knowledge. It presents these fundamental and essential portions of geography in the order in which they depend one upon another, and in which alone they can be comprehended by the pupil. By this order are accomplished two things of the utmost importance to the pupil of limited opportunities:

FIRST. It establishes a natural and intimate association between the various parts of the subject, and thus binds them all together, and fastens them upon the memory as permanent knowledge.

SECOND. It enables the pupil's mind to grasp, digest, and assimilate the knowledge presented to him, instead of merely *remembering* it. Hence it secures to him *real mental growth, true intellectual culture,* as well as permanence of knowledge. The lack of such a selection and arrangement of matter has been, as we shall see, at the bottom of our failure to produce satisfactory results in our geographical teaching.

Thus *a correct apprehension of the logical relations of the science of geography is indispensable to him who would do most and best as a practical teacher* for those pupils whose sole degree is taken in the great American university, the public school. In other words, the *only practical course* of teaching this subject, is the course demanded alike by true geographical science and true educational philosophy.

II. Let us now come to the more immediate question, what is precisely the geographical *matter*, the *order*, and the *manner* most valuable in the lower grades of schools.

1. The *matter* has already been indicated in a general way in our outline of the first department of geographical science; namely, the form of the earth; the proportion of land and water upon its surface; the size and positions of the continents and oceans; together with all that is most important in connection with each continent, its countries and their people, leaving out all unimportant details to be gained by miscellaneous reading in after life. This, followed by an outline of mathematical or astronomical geography, giving a general knowledge of the earth in its relations to the solar system, its motions and their results, and the idea of exact geographical position as exhibited by latitude and longitude, furnishes to the pupil of the lower grades of schools all of geography he has time to acquire, and all that it is most essential he should know.

The practical man of business needs not, either for his success in life, or for his reputation as a well-informed business man, to know the cause and course of marine currents and trade-winds; to comprehend the theory of the upheaval of mountains, or the laws controlling the distribution of vegetable and animal life, the migration of races, etc. But if he have not a thorough, general knowledge of the character, location, resources and comparative importance of the countries of the globe, with the position of their great political, commercial and manufacturing centers, he certainly cannot be considered a well-informed business man;

nor has he the most effectual means of enlarging his knowledge of the earth and its inhabitants by miscellaneous reading, for he lacks that which would enable him to arrange in his mind and retain the various valuable items which the journals of the day are constantly giving in regard to our own and other countries.

In the language of the able Superintendent of Public Instruction, in this city, "Geography should be taught in the interests of civilization. What is the significance of this or that country to man? is the question to be borne in mind throughout the entire investigation. The problem is to find out what is the relation of each place to the rest of the world. Hence, what does it produce for the rest of the world, what does it demand in return, and what are the means of transit to and fro? Besides this," he continues, "we are called upon to give, as far as it lies in our power, such an education to the rising generation as shall fit it for political insight and wise statesmanship." The obligation, thus clearly stated, resting especially upon the teachers of public schools, and recognized by all, gives rise to the following considerations:

1. The geography of nature, in contradistinction to that of man, portraying the surface, drainage, climate, and natural resources of the various regions of the earth, forms the basis of political geography, or the geography of nations; for the possibilities of nature in the different regions of a continent control the distribution of population and industries in that continent, and determine, to a great extent, the relative importance and natural intercourse of countries and cities. It is, therefore, essential that the natural characteristics of a region be made known to the pupil before the particulars concerning man's distribution and pursuits therein. Experience shows that only when built upon this foundation can the multitude of particulars met with in the study of political geography be retained in the mind as permanent and available knowledge, since this alone makes them intelligible, and binds them together by a natural association.

2. This order—the geography of nature as a basis for that of man—not only furnishes the best means for remembering what is the relation of each place to the rest of the world, where are the great emporiums of trade, what are the staple articles of exchange and the best means of transit, but since it shows the cause underlying each fact, enables the pupil to see where new commercial centres may be successfully established, and when the creation of farther means of transit and the introduction of new staples of culture or new manufacturing enterprises is practicable and promises to pay.

3. Since the possibilities of nature in the different regions of the earth, as fixed by their surface, mineral deposits, drainage and climate, not only control the distribution of states and nations, but govern, to a certain extent, their intercommunication, and fix the location of their great emporiums of trade, it follows that a knowledge of the geography of nature, or descriptive physical geography, is an indispensable condition for the exercise of "political insight," by which we understand the eminent educator quoted above to mean correct judgment in regard to the probable future relations of states or communities.

Questions in regard to the desirability of securing possession of a region hitherto unoccupied by modern civilization, or of the comparative future importance of several at present undeveloped regions. What are these but questions of the nature of such regions? Foremost among them are these: Is the region in question capable of producing subsistence for a large and civilized population; or can it be made to produce that which can always be exchanged for the means of subsistence? Are there natural means of intercommunication such as to make practicable the interchange of commodities on a large scale; or can artificial means of transit be created with such facility as to promise fair returns for the capital invested in them? How large a market can be commanded by this region, and how large a demand is there likely to be for its peculiar staple: With what other important regions will communication be facilitated by the possession or development of this one, and what new relations are likely to follow this increase of intercourse? The answer to these questions settles the one great American question, "Will it pay?" Thus the statesman who would decide whether it is wise to deplete the National Treasury by the purchase of new territory; or to invest capital in developing the peculiar sources of "wild" territory already in possession, must sit at the feet of nature for instruction. In so far, then, as the study of geography educates for political insight and wise statesmanship, it is in the geography of nature which lays "the corner-stone" of that education.

Coming, then, to the study of any individual continent or great physical region of the earth, we must investigate *first* its *natural* or *physical character*, which includes the following topics, arranged in the order of their successive dependence:

a. Its position on the globe.
b. Its general form, size and contour.
c. Its relief or surface elevations.
d. Its drainage or system of lakes and rivers.
e. Its climate.
f. The character and distribution of its native vegetation and animal life.

Secondly, we study its *political geography*, or the countries included within its area, subdivided into the following topics, also in the order of dependence:

a. Position of the country in the continent, including the area and boundaries.
b. The natural advantages secured by this position in regard to surface, interior or circumjacent waters, climate and mineral wealth.
c. The prevailing industries, staple productions, and commercial relations.
d. The location and comparative importance of cities.
e. Items of information in regard to government and religion, progress in civilization, and political relations either present or recently existing.

For example, in studying the continent of Europe, after a survey of its physical character, each country or group of countries occupying a distinct strongly marked physical region would be taken into consideration; its position, area and boundaries observed; the sources of wealth growing out of that position enumerated; its productions, staples of exchange, and chief foreign market, noted; and its leading cities located and described. Then, if the country in question were the German empire, for instance, the changes which have taken place since the beginning of 1866, in the political relations of the States composing it would form proper subject of remark in connection with a brief statement of their present relations, forms of government, and progress in arts and learning.

III. The mode or method of imparting the instruction to be given, necessitates a reference to principles underlying educational methods in general. We shall call your attention only to those principles which we conceive to be held in common at the present time by all thoughtful educators, believing that in these we find a wholesome middle ground, equally removed from the mechanical routine which consumed without profit the earlier school-years of many of us, and the opposite extreme, which has since practically forbidden the formation of habits of patient, laborious study within the period during which alone the majority of pupils are in our public schools.

Among the truths held in common are the following:

1. That different modes of mental action, technically called different mental powers of faculties, attain strength sufficient for prolonged and vigorous use at different periods; some in childhood, others in youth, still others only at maturity.
2. That the earliest to exhibit great strength are those powers or modes of action through which the mind takes cognizance of the external world, perceiving, naming, comparing, contrasting, combining into classes by resemblances, separating into parts or groups by differences, and otherwise investigating tangible objects and their properties.
3. That the power to grasp and investigate truth in the abstract, to deal with ideas rather than tangible things, to investigate the relations of cause and consequence, to deduce general laws from individual phenomena, is not in general exhibited in a considerable degree of development until the period of childhood is passed.
4. That subjects of study and processes of imparting instruction must be determined upon in view of this law of successive development of the mental faculties.
5. That mental power, in any given direction, can, like muscular power, be developed only by appropriate exercise, and may be greatly intensified thereby.
6. That the accumulation of knowledge is not, of necessity, a source of intellectual power.
7. That the discipline to be gained by a right mode of acquiring knowledge is often of greater subsequent value to the mind than the possession of the knowledge so acquired.

Upon these principles the improved courses and methods of instruction which characterize the present time are based, but the manner of applying them divides instructors into two classes, which, without being necessarily antagonistic, are yet in many particulars violently opposed to each other.

The one school, first, discard text-books to a greater or less extent, contending that their use tends to discourage thought, and promote the habit of mechanical memorizing; second, they introduce a great variety of exercises in which instruction is a subordinate object, the principal purpose being to secure a sort of mental gymnastics, to bring the mind to bear directly upon the properties of matter, thus to quicken observation and awaken original thought; and third, in imparting instruction they rely chiefly upon oral exercises, in which a series of questions on the part of the instructor directs the thought of the learners into the proper channel, and leads, so to speak, to a discovery, on their part, of the truth to be presented to their minds. Such are the characteristics of the so-called Pestalozzian school.

The other, sometimes designated the Conservative school, claim (1) that the habit of prolonged attention, and patient and independent search of books, is of primary importance; to say the least, of as great a value to the student as is the power of minute and prolonged observation, and the early formation of this habit of the most vital moment; (2) that the direct pursuit of knowledge, when properly conducted, is capable of affording all the needed mental gymnastics, and that, in view of the limited time most pupils can spend in school, exercises not instructive, or but slightly so, should not be introduced. Hence (3) they insist upon the use of text-books as the nucleus of every lesson, and confine their class exercises to the ordinary range of subjects of instruction; they accustom the pupils to grapple with the difficulties independently, without previous suggestion or explanations, and cultivate the habit of intelligent and thoughtful study, by severely catechising him upon the relations, bearings, primary causes, or ultimate effects of the facts and principles he has been able to glean from the text-books, and such books of reference as are at his command. Observe, that, diverse as the methods are, the motive of these apparently antagonistic schools is the same; namely, to give to their pupils the most thorough possible knowledge of the subject of study under consideration, and at the same time secure to them the utmost amount of mental exercise, discipline, and growth, which can be secured during the limited period generally allowed them for the pursuit of knowledge.

The structure to be reared is the same, namely, a powerful, well-disciplined, well-informed manhood. The materials are identical; it is only in the mode of building that the difference lies.

It occurs to us that, not only are the two methods the outgrowth of the same principles, and inspired by the same motive, but that they are capable of being combined into one harmonious whole, and that the greatest usefulness of our public schools can be secured only when they shall be thus combined in the practice of instructors generally. You have seen the mother initiating her child into the mysteries of walking. First, she supports him, moving gently foward while he performs the astonishing feat of lifting and replacing those dimpled cushions on which perhaps he is destined to walk through dry places, seeking rest and finding none. Subsequently she poises him carefully, an arm's-length away, and beckons with hand and smile, while that momentous act, the first independent step, is performed; to be followed by another and another, until he can run in the race, even carrying weight.

Had the mother failed either to furnish the support in the first instance, or to withdraw it in the second, she would not have provided to the young toiler that judicious aid, for the unfailing supply of which mothers are supposed to have been invented. So, in learning to walk intellectually, there must at first be not only support, but propulsion, both of which must presently be replaced by sympathy and encouragement, so that the aspirant in the scholastic race may learn to run independently.

To what extent have the principles enumerated above been observed in the former methods of instruction in geography? To what extent have our methods accomplished the results aimed at, namely: First—To secure on the part of the pupil a thorough and permanent knowledge of the portions of the subject selected for his study. Second—To make the *process of gaining that knowledge* furnish the greatest amount of mental culture of which the nature of the subject-matter and the condition of the pupil's mind admit.

Have we accomplished either of these things in our methods of teaching geography heretofore? As evidence in regard to the first, we have our own geographical knowledge, and the testimony of all persons who have had occasion to test the knowledge of our adult pupils by examinations.

How much of our store of geographical knowledge has come with us from the school-room of our childhood? How many of the adult pupils in our schools, capable of sustaining a creditable examination in mathematics and grammar, would do themselves credit in geography?

Again: Have we made the study of geography a means of real intellectual culture on the part of our own pupils? So great an authority on educational questions as John Stuart Mill says: "Geography, as it can be taught in the schools, exercises no faculty of the intelligence excepting the memory." If we recall the manner in which we were taught, or the manner of presenting the subject in many schools under our observation, we shall find this remark as true of the schools of America as those in England and Scotland.

Now it is not exaggeration to say, that there is no other subject of elementary instruction which affords so great opportunities for mental culture, as are found in the study of geography. Every faculty of the mind can find field for its exercise therein. Geographical forms of one or another kind, as mountains or hills, plains or valleys, lakes or streams, are under the eye of every child, and furnish occasion to exercise most delightfully his powers of observation and expression. With these forms as a basis, and through the aid of pictures, the imagination can be called into play to create distinct mental pictures of geographical forms and regions not within the reach of observation. The immediate and obvious relations existing between the various parts of the subject, as between the surface and the drainage, the climate and the distribution of vegetation, the natural characteristics of a region and the leading pursuits of its inhabitants, call into healthful and pleasant action the reflective and reasoning powers, establish associations, and in the end give occasion for appropriate exercise in classification and generalization.

But how shall all this exercise and activity be secured? Certainly not by parrot-like repetition of paragraphs memorized, with little or no thought as to their meaning, but by a judicious combination of the methods of the two schools of educators alluded to above.

The objective method, through which nature teaches the young child so constantly and so rapidly before his entrance into the school-room, seems indispensable until he has learned to read readily and intelligently, before which period books are practically sealed to him. After this degree of advancement is attained, the study of suitable books is both possible and desirable, but the supporting hand must still be extended to the learner. He has but a limited acquaintance with the meaning and use of words, and his strength unaided will not yet suffice to pierce through the shell of language and obtain the kernel enclosed by it. Here the oral exercises of the objective method furnish the needed aid. A few minutes at the close of each recitation devoted to conversation upon the subject-matter of the next lesson will enable the pupil to perceive its meaning, and to form the conceptions it is designed to impress upon his mind, after which the next will be mastered without difficulty; more, with pleasure and profit.

At the beginning, then, of the study of text-books in geography, precede the study of each lesson by an oral exercise, the purpose of which is to awaken and direct thought, to enable the pupil to comprehend the subject-matter of the next lesson and to interest him in it. In the succeeding recitation, question him, not only in regard to his recollection of the matter assigned for study, but especially in regard to his comprehension of it.

By degrees, as the pupil becomes accustomed to the language of the subject, so that the text is intelligible to him, and acquires the power to fix his attention continuously upon a thought, until it has become fixed upon his memory, these conversational exercises preceding the study of the text should be discontinued, and the pupil sent unaided to the task of mastering it. As the preparatory exercises are gradually discontinued, the catechisms after the study of the lesson should become more and more severe, so that there will be no danger of any pupil who has imperfectly memorized or imperfectly comprehended the lesson escaping detection. Topical recitation, as a test of memory; questions, as a test of comprehension; and the preparation of tabular analyses of the subject-matter under discussion, are all valuable, and should all be employed—the one or the other being used for testing each pupil according to the habit of mind which the teacher has discovered in him. If one is inclined to memorize and repeat mechanically, catch him with questions on the meaning of expressions used, and the relations of facts stated, or require a tabular analysis, which, like a genealogical table, shall show the relation of each separate idea in the text under consideration to all the others. If the pupil have the power to comprehend readily and the habit of thoughtful study, but is embarrassed by a feeble memory, as is sometimes the case, topical recitation will, with tabular analyses, be most profitable for him, as compelling exercise in that direction in which he most needs strengthening.

The mastery of the forms, positions, and boundaries of countries, and the location of cities, is best accomplished by a combination of map drawing with the old method of map questions. The drawing is valuable as a means, since it compels a more prolonged and minute observation of the map than can be secured in any other way; and a method which enables the pupil to construct outlines readily from memory, is valuable as a test in recitation, since it gives him the power to prove beyond question that his mental geographical pictures are correct.

One more question in regard to method remains to be answered: What shall we do with the little children? What shall be the direction of our "first steps" toward geographical knowledge? In our judgment, if the plan just outlined be pursued with the younger classes, and every lesson be, as far as possible, explained and illustrated by reference to nature as it exists within the range of the observation, it dispenses with the necessity of any introductory course or first steps, so-called. Still, usage has made such a course seem necessary to the majority of teachers, and the question of its character and purpose becomes an important one. An introductory course is limited as to character, first by the feeble condition, in the very young, of nearly all the mental faculties, save observation, memory, and imagination, and by the necessity of giving to the young pupil something which will be of practical value to him in case he has no subsequent geographical course.

Being obliged to depend mainly on the pupil's power of observation and imagination as avenues to his mind, we shall be obliged to commence with a study of the landscape under the eye of the pupil from day to day for his first geographical ideas, and upon these base our instruction in regard to regions beyond his observation. The attention being directed to the surrounding landscape, a few well-directed questions will enable the pupil to frame simple definitions of the various geographical forms it contains, which definitions will henceforth be to him expressive of real mental conceptions instead of meaningless forms of words, as is usually the case. After the list of definitions of familiar forms is complete, lessons may be given upon the location of objects in the landscape in terms expressing their direction and distance from the school-room. These lessons may be followed by others upon the climate of the locality; the vegetation most common—whether forest trees or cultivated plants, furnish material for further lessons in the geography of nature.

When the *geography of nature* in the locality is complete, that of man becomes the subject of study. Here is opportunity to form the basis of an interesting and intelligent study of political geography. The location and boundaries of the different farms, their produce, together with the reason why the one farmer finds it most profitable to raise cattle and wool, while another raises grain and fruits —all have their value in awakening and directing thought in reference to objects and events about us, and form an excellent preparation for future study.

Finally, the nearest village becomes the text for another sort of lesson. The question, What are these people engaged in, and why are they gathered together at these particular points? answered to the comprehension of the pupil as it may be, because it is open to his own observation, will give the means of hereafter impressing upon his mind the fact that the location and comparative size of cities is not the result of accident. It will thus enlist the intelligence, and consequently the interest, of the pupil in the study of the names, location and comparative size of cities, ordinarily the least interesting portion of the subject. This sort of work may, at the discretion of the teacher, be extended to the pupil's own State; and it may be followed by familiar conversational lessons upon the characteristic regions of our own country, and upon other countries which are great geographical types. In each case, these descriptive lessons in regard to a country should be followed by exercises upon the map of the country, giving the names and location of a few of its important mountains, streams and cities.

These simple lessons being finished, the pupil is prepared to begin the philosophic course heretofore delineated, and to gain from it the utmost it has to give, either in knowledge or mental discipline. By this preparatory course several things of value have been accomplished. In the first place, the pupil has received a series of distinct and indelible mental impressions, instead of dead forms of words. Second, a map has become to him a true symbol, instead of being itself the object of study, and it thus has an instructive power which could in no other way have been given it. Third, by learning to associate ideas, he has the secret of permanent retention. Fourth, he has gained distinct, permanent pictures of the *nature* of the principal countries of the globe, the *manner of life* existing therein, their location, and the characteristics and *location* of their leading cities.

Thus, if he should never receive another lesson in geography, he has what will be of value to him all his life, instead of merely a few names and definitions, soon to pass away entirely from his memory, which are the sole results of the usual first steps or primary course.

Here, as in the regular scientific course, the work demanded as a preparation for future study is the very work most valuable in case there is to be no future study. *Here, as everywhere, the logical and philosophical method of proceeding is the only truly practical one.*

After the reading of Mrs. SMITH's paper a recess of ten minutes was taken.

Hon. W. T. Harris, of St. Louis, opened the discussion on "What constitutes a Good Primary Teacher?" as follows:

Inasmuch as the average time spent in school in the West is but five years for the children in the cities and three years for those in the country, it follows that the average education is only a primary one, and that the qualifications of primary teachers form a subject of vital importance. I consider that any new device that may be invented to increase the value of these three or four short years in our schools should be adopted, though at great cost. Any new qualification that may be added to our primary teachers, giving them more skill, or more force, or more culture, will prove of untold value. Right here I would name the new method of teaching how to read, invented by Dr. LEIGH, as a most important auxiliary to a primary teacher. By it she can gain one half of the time usually required to learn to read and can do better work than by the old method. Reading is the basis of school education. The child should be taught to read as expeditiously as possible on entrance to school. The child that can read has a thousand sources of information that the child who cannot read has no access to. Besides that, the book is full of accurate and digested information. We want a generation of readers. I think, therefore, that the first qualification of the primary teacher is the ability to teach reading in the quickest possible time. Such a teacher will be one skilled in the use of LEIGH's system of Phonetics.

Since the Primary School takes the children from the family nurture, it is very necessary that the transition be not too abrupt. The discipline must not be lax, but it must not on any account be harsh. Hence, the best primary teacher is the one who attracts the young children to her as to a mother, awakening in them a spirit of obedience to rule, and kindness and courtesy toward all. It is a regulation of the School Board in St. Louis, in assigning teachers, to place the very best ones in the lowest room of the School, and to pay them better than those teaching the next higher grades. The child is initiated at the start into the best department, and habits of diligence and attention. Once on the right track, he is easily kept here.

Miss Delia A. Lathrop, of Cincinnati, Ohio, held that the ability to quickly understand children was the first and essential thing. The primary teacher should be not only an instructor, but should have the spirit of a mother and a sister. The relation between the teacher and pupil is not a business relation. It is not possible for a teacher to have too much energy, provided it is properly controlled and directed.

She closed her remarks with the statement that a quick perception of the difficulties of pupils and a readiness in getting them out of their difficulties is the highest mark of a successful teacher.

E. E. White, of Ohio, agreed with Miss LATHROP that sympathy is an indispensable qualification of the primary teacher, but he insisted that it must be genuine, not pretended. The teacher wears no veil over her heart in the presence of children. She must herself be a child at heart.

Second. Every teacher must be an artist in the truest sense, and the primary teacher must be the artist of artists. An operative may make cloth by pattern, but there is no place for operative work in the primary school. The inner life of the child is not touched by the revolving cogs of a soulless method. The primary teacher must be more than the methods she uses. They must embody her own conceptions, and she must breathe into them her own inspiration. The primary teacher must be the *soul* of her methods.

Third. In order to be a true artist, the primary teacher must know the child's nature, and especially must she know how the child acquires knowledge when freely guided by that nature. It will not do to infer from the fact that the perceptive or observing faculties awaken first into activity and are most active in childhood, that these faculties are to be exclusively appealed to in the primary school. The little primary pupil imagines and reasons as well as observes. The order in which the several acquisitive faculties become active only suggests the true order in which all knowledgė, the elements of which are acquired by observation, should be taught to the little child.

The primary teacher must *begin* with sense knowledge and end with the abstract and reflective. But these successive steps may be taken the same day and in the same lesson. The child is to be led from the concrete to the abstract.

Fourth. Finally, a primary teacher must know that study and reflection should have but a *small* place in the daily life of a little child. The eye, the tongue, and the fingers furnish the chief employment of its waking hours. A child gains no small part of its actual knowledge through the ends of its fingers. The school life of the primary pupil must largely consist of *seeing*, *doing*, and *telling*.

Mr. Hancock, of Ohio, said that ladies are more successful as teachers in primary grades, because of their poetic temperament.

The primary teacher should be able to draw and should be fertile in resources. He should read poetry as well as works on educational subjects.

Mr. Bell, of Indiana, made some humorous remarks in reference to primary teachers. Three things, he said were necessary for them, viz., muscles, nerves, and small salaries. He held that a primary teacher requires a better education than any other.

Mr. Beard, from the Committee on Nominations, reported the following names:

President.—Miss D. A. Lathrop, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Vice President.—James Johonnot, Oswego, New York.
Secretary.—L. H. Cheney, St. Louis, Missouri.

The Report was accepted, and the persons named elected as officers of the Section for the ensuing year.

The Department of Elementary Schools then adjourned.

LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE ELEMENTARY SECTION.

N. A. Calkins, Supt. Primary Dept., New York City.
A. C. Shortridge, Supt. Schools, Indianopolis, Ind.
W. D. Williams, Supt., Macon, Ga.
J. M. McKenzie, State Supt., Nebraska
John W. Hoyt, Madison, Wis.
Eugenia A. Wheeler, Winona, Min.
J. W. Bulkley, Supt., Brooklyn, N.Y.
C. C. Rounds, Farmington, Maine.
N. Cropsey, Indianopolis, Ind.
Mrs. M. A. Stone, New Milford, Conn.
James H. Holmes, Washington, D. C.
Hiram Rolph, Chicago, Ill.
D. S. Morrison, Cape Girardeau, Mo.
Mrs. E. J. Morrison, Cape Girardeau, Mo.
John H. Rolf, Chicago, Ill.
S. J. Bullock, Charleston, Mass.
C. W. Cushman, Brighton, Ill.
E. A. Haight, Supt., Alton, Ill.
John H. Barrows, Arvonia, Kansas.
Philitus Fules, Ottawa, Kansas.
Margaret M. Anthony, Van Buren, Arkansas.
Adda U. Rutherford, Girard, Ill.
Laura Rittenhouse, Centralia, Ill.
D. H. Cruttenden, Oswego, N. Y.
Geo. P. Beard, Princ. Normal School, Warrensburg, Mo.
Miss H. E. Cummings, Nebraska Normal School.
Elizabeth A. Crossley, Satterlee's Mills, Mich.
Sue T. Beeson, St. Louis.
Mira Wheeler, Winona, Minn.
Mary O. Graham, Rochester, Minn.
Sarah E. Sweetser, Peoria, Ill.
Levi Swarm, Belleville, Ill.
Gove
Aaron Gore, Editor "Schoolmaster," Normal, Ill.
J. W. Brodie, Sulphur Springs, Mo.
Isaac H. Brown, De Soto, Mo.
A. R. Sabin, Chicago, Ill.
Henry H. Belfield, Dore School, Chicago, Ill.
Lucius H. Cheney, Intermediate School, St. Louis.
M. Z. Tinker, Evansville, Ind.
Henry M. Butler, St, Louis, Mo.
Miss Rose E. Wright, St. Louis, Mo.
Kate E. Wilson, Eliot School, St. Louis.
Elizabeth Colligan, St. Louis, Mo.
Julia Long, St. Louis, Mo.
Lucy W. Bland, St. Louis, Mo.
W. A. Bell, Indianopolis, Ind.
Mary A. Atkinson, St. Louis, Mo.
Miss E. T. Sander, Chicago, Ill.
Mary S. Horton, Mobile, Ala.
Augusta Murtfeldt, Kirkwood, Mo.
Caroline Klingel, St. Louis, Mo.
Mrs. J. Newman, Collinsville, Ill.
Prof. J. H. Kierr, Jackson, Mo.
Peter A. Sickal, La Prairie, Ill.
Ellen C. Clement, St. Louis, Mo.
E. P. Sankin, Boonville, Mo.
R. J. Young, Supt., Murphysboro, Ill.
John E. Vertrees, Edinburgh, Mo.
S. P. Howell, Gallatin, Mo.
Jas. Troll, Belleville, Ill.
Sylvia Brown, Palmyra, Mo.
Laura F. Nicters, St. Louis, Mo.
Kate Bindernagel, St. Louis, Mo.
Amelia Vogel, St. Louis, Mo.
Mrs. C. Howard, Sparta, Ill.
W. H. Lanning, Clay City, Ill.
C. L. Howard, Chester, Ill.
Elizabeth Leeper, Decatur, Ill.
Miss Cora English, New Hope, Mo.
Myra M. Ware, St. Louis, Mo.
Mary Cleveland, St. Louis, Mo.
Betsey M. Clapp, Hudson, St. Croix Co., Wis.

Department of Normal Schools.

ADDRESSES AND JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS

AT THE

SESSION HELD IN ST. LOUIS

August 22, 23, 24, 1871.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

Immediately upon the adjournment of the General Association, at eleven o'clock, A. M., the Normal Section convened at the Polytechnic Institute, and was called to order by the President, Professor S. H. WHITE.

The Secretary of the Section being absent, Prof. C. C. ROUNDS, of Maine, was chosen Secretary *pro tem.*

A resolution was adopted that the Section meet with the Superintendent's Section in the anteroom.

Miss ANNA C. BRACKETT was appointed a committee to communicate this resolution to the Superintendent's Section.

The President, after cordially greeting the Section, read the following paper:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN OF THE NORMAL DEPARTMENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION:

The States in which normal schools have been established by state authority, with the number in actual operation in each, are as follows; California, one: Connecticut, one; Illinois, one; Indiana, one; Kansas, two; Maine, two; Massachusetts, four; Maryland, one; Mississippi, one; Missouri, two; Minnesota, three; Michigan, one; New Hampshire, one; New York, six; New Jersey, one; Nebraska, one; Pennsylvania, five; Rhode Island, one; Vermont, three; Wisconsin, two; West Virginia, three; making the number of organized State Normal Schools in the country, forty-three. Of this number, twenty-five have been organized since 1865, and of these, eight have been opened since January 1, 1870.

The number of pupils receiving instruction in the normal departments of these schools was, in the year 1868–'69, 5,884. In the year 1869–'70 the number was 7,734, showing an increase of over thirty per cent in a single year. Considering the ratio of increase to have remained the same, the number of students receiving professional instruction in the state normal schools of the country during the year just closed was somewhat more than 10,000.

The most reliable estimates place the number of pupils receiving such instruction in city and private normal schools, private classes, etc., equal in the first of the above-named years to that in state normal schools. Considering the number receiving instruction in this manner to have increased each year at the rate of twenty per cent., it reaches about 8,500 during the year just closed.

Such is a partial glance at the history of the professional instruction of teachers in this country for the immediate part. The future looks equally encouraging.

Additional normal schools have been established by different States, as follows: Illinois, one; Massachusetts, one; New York, three; Pennsylvania, four; Wisconsin, one. Several of these schools are well advanced toward completion and will be ready for active work during the coming year. A disposition for equal progress is shown by the larger cities and towns, and by private institutions throughout the country.

While this glance at the past and the present of our work furnishes reason for great gratification to all friends of education, it also suggests questions of great moment which must arise in connection with its future, and for which a wise foresight will provide, before the emergency shall be upon us.

It is the opinion of many of the leading school officers of various States whose attention has been called to the subject, that the average time of teachers in the profession is two and one half years. If we reject the quite large number teaching in the cities and larger towns, whose time of service extends through a much longer period, the average time for the remainder will be reduced to not more than two years. For the instruction of the children in this country not far from 100,000 new teachers must be employed every year.

When we consider this fact in connection with the other one, that more than twenty per cent. of the pupils attending the normal departments of the State Normal Schools in the country reside in the counties where the schools are located, it becomes quite apparent that the present system of establishing such institutions must be greatly modified and extended, before all the teachers in our schools shal receive the benefits of special instruction.

Superintendent Wickersham states the case of the State of Pennsylvania, in the following words:

"We have in the state over 14,000 schools, and our object should be to secure an annual supply of well-qualified teachers for all of them. To do this will require, for years to come, something like 5,000 new teachers. We need that number the present year. Whence are we to obtain them?

"We have in operation at present five State Normal Schools. They graduated the past school-year eighty-two students. Admitting that they all engage in teaching in the public schools, and many of them do not, it leaves 4,918 to be supplied from other sources. In addition to their graduates, however, there were under instruction at the several normal schools 1,100 students who declared that it was their intention to become teachers. Supposing that 500 of these are reasonably well prepared and engage at once in teaching, we still have to employ 4,418 teachers, who have received little preparation or none at all. Our system of normal schools contemplates the establishment of twelve institutions of the kind. But the whole twelve, taking those we now have in operation as a standard, will be able to graduate only about 200 teachers per annum, and send out to teach, reasonably well instructed, some 1,200 under-graduates. This supply does not meet the demand by some 3,600, and multitudes of children are still left in the hands of those unqualified to instruct and train them." And, he adds, "The risk is a fearful one."

The only plans, beside those of State Normal Schools, tried for regular and extended instruction to persons preparing to teach, are the organization of teachers' classes in the academies and high schools of the country, and the establishment of Normal Schools of a lower grade in the different counties of a State. The first of these plans has been in operation for several years in the state of New York. By it, in the year 1869–'70, 1,657 teachers received instruction four months at an expense of $14,267. The Board of Regents of the state, to whom is intrusted the distribution of this fund, say in one of their reports. "It is due to most of these academies to say that they have faithfully performed what the law and the ordinances of Regents have required of them, and that the results of the instruction given have been apparent in the improved character of the teachers of the common schools." The adoption of the plan is strongly urged by the educational authorities of the State of Massachusetts, and is also recommended by Hon. J. P. Wickersham, Superintendent of Schools in Pennsylvania. The State of Iowa has, by proper legislation, authorized the establishment of county high schools, with a training department in each. The adoption of a similar plan has been agitated by leading educators in two or three of the other states. With such an organization of the school and appointment of its instructors that its normal department shall not be subordinated to the academic, there is no doubt that much might be done by this plan for the more complete preparation of teachers for their work.

The plan would however be available for but a small portion of the teachers of the country. The scholastic attainments of a very large number—it is probably safe to say a majority—of the teachers, are such as to preclude their admission to any High School, unless its standard of admission is so low that, under an assumed name, it does really elementary work.

The State of Illinois has, by its legislature, authorized its counties either singly or by union of two or more, to establish schools for the especial purpose of fitting their own teachers more thoroughly for their work. Such schools are under the control of Boards of Education, elected by the Board of Supervisors, or appointed by the County Court. Tuition in them is free. Their financial support is by an appropriation from the Board of Supervisors. Under this act two schools have been in operation, one three and the other four years. Their aggregate attendance during the past year has been 90 and about 150 pupils respectively. Their results are watched carefully and have been such as to lead other counties to consider the question of establishing similar schools.

The expense of professional instruction is an item of very great importance in considering the question of providing for a comprehensive system of Normal Schools. With few exceptions it may be considered that in states already having a Normal School, future institutions of the kind would have to be supported by direct appropriation from the State Treasury. Such appropriations would probably average not less than $12,000 for a school of three hundred pupils.

To illustrate the point, let us take the State of Illinois, with from 6,000 to 8,000 inexperienced persons taking position among her teachers annually. Allowing that a school of the size named will send out each year two hundred pupils, with a fair degree of preparation to teach, there will be a need of from thirty to forty such schools to supply the full demand. So extensive a system would entail a yearly appropriation of from $360,000 to $480,000. The experience of the friends of Normal Schools in securing funds sufficient for the efficient operation of a single school in a State is sufficient to convince them of the futility of the idea of sustaining an extensive system from the same source.

Yet the idea that it is wisdom for a State to educate teachers for her common schools has not only been received but practically adopted by the different States. There can be no question that this aid should be sufficient to benefit the children in every school within its jurisdiction. There is at least as great a necessity that the children in the most benighted region should have intelligent instruction as that those in the best graded schools of the city should have it. We are brought, then, squarely to face the question: "How can State aid be made to inure to the benefit of all, so that all shall feel directly the good effects of its influence, and rise more evenly to the scale of higher education?"

The only instance, I believe, in which the plan of entire support of Normal Schools of the State has been modified is that of the State of Pennsylvania. That State is divided into twelve districts, each of which may, on compliance with the conditions of the act, have a State Normal School, and only one. Whenever in any district any number of citizens not less than thirteen shall organize as stockholders, and establish a school for the professional instruction of teachers, providing suitable grounds, buildings, etc., and not less than six professors, the State will pay fifty cents per week of the expenses of each student attending such school who declares his intention to teach. Such attendance shall be at least twelve consecutive weeks. By this means private and local interests are kept continually active, and enough of State aid is given to secure attendance, and State control exercised to regulate the system and give it thoroughness.

For the year 1869-'70 there were in the Normal Schools of the State 1,100 students of the kind referred to. The instruction of these students cost the State $14,000.

If this feature of the Pennsylvanian school law, somewhat modified, perhaps, could be engrafted upon the purely Normal School system of the States generally, it is submitted whether a given appropriation by the State would not result in the instruction of a larger number of teachers than the present system of free tuition.

The question of a system of Normal instruction which shall fully meet the educational necessities of the country is one of great moment, and is well worthy the attention of this body whose time and thoughts are practically given to this especial work.

A motion was adopted to refer the address of President WHITE to a Committee of three, for consideration, who should report at their pleasure, before the final adjournment.

The President named the following gentlemen as such Committee:

Dr. R. EDWARDS, of Illinois; Prof. WILLIAM F. PHELPS, of Minnesota; and Prof. S. R. THOMPSON, of Nebraska.

The Section adjourned, to meet at 2.30 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION, AUGUST 22.

The Normal Section met according to adjournment with the Superintendent's Section.

Miss DELIA A. LATHROP, of Ohio, was appointed Reporting Secretary for the Section.

The following named persons were appointed a Committee on Nominations, by the President:

C. C. ROUNDS, Me.
S. W. GARMAN, Miss.
S. R. THOMPSON, Neb.
D. S. WENTWORTH, Ill.
WILLIAM F. PHELPS, Minn.
MISS D. A. LATHROP, Ohio.
G. P. BEARD, Mo.
MRS. N. S. ROBERTS, Ky.

Richard Edwards, LL.D., President of the Normal University of Illinois read the following paper on "Model Schools in connection with Normal Schools."

MODEL SCHOOLS IN CONNECTION WITH NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Let us first inquire whether the Normal School needs any appendage of the kind proposed. Is a Model School of any real utility? and, if so, is it sufficiently useful to make it worth our while to incur the expense and trouble necessary to its establishment and maintenance? Some Normal Schools in the country have acquired high reputation and success without Model Schools. In others it is considered almost an essential requisite to the after-success of the young teachers that they see the practical application of the principles they learn in the Normal, and have their own powers and skill tested by actual practice. On this question, therefore, the usage in this country is divided. Abroad, so far as I know, the Model School finds favor.

It seems to me plain that the logic of this question is with the Model School. Teaching is a practical art, and the practical arts are learned only by practice. No amount of mere theoretic instruction can furnish forth a surgeon or a carpenter. The saw-bones must acquire strength and precision of muscular movement, as well as knowledge of principles. The carpenter would find few willing to employ him if he had never wielded hammer or guided plane, however thorough his knowledge of architecture might be.

So of the teacher. The community who employ him care very little about his theoretic attainments. With them the all-important question is, not "Does he understand the theory of education?"—but "Can he do the work?" And this question he must, even the first time, be able to answer in such way as to induce the community to employ him—that is, in the affirmative. "Can you play the piano?" said one to a youth of some forwardness. "I don't know, for I never tried," was the answer, and it was not considered excessive in modesty. But what would have been thought, if, with our impractical pedagogue, he had said, "I can, for I have never tried."

And it is probably true that the facts bear out the logic here, and that even the high success of those Normal Schools that are without Model Departments would be enhanced by the addition of these appendages.

Before going further it may be wise to enquire, what precise significance it is intended that the term Model School should have. It certainly has been used in various senses. By a Model School has sometimes been meant a school so complete in all its appointments and processes, so perfect in its adjustments, its grading and its teaching, that it may become to the young teacher what the clay model of the artist is to the operative sculptor,—a thing to be imitated in every detail. Many seem to have regarded it very much as the Chinese regard the originals of their civilization, or as the Mongolian shoemakers at North Adams regard the patterns by which they work. It is in this sense that the term Model School is most accurately expressive. Such a school, used for such a purpose, would be, strictly and accurately, a model.

But there is another function to be performed by these schools. It is not enough that a young person sees a perfect thing that has been wrought by human hands or human thinking,—that is, it is not enough if the observer is expected to reproduce what he sees. Not every one that looks, however earnestly and with whatever interest, upon the Venus de Medici or Apollo Belvidere, can go forth and make another as good. No amount of mere looking will impart to the looker skill enough to make even a nail for a horse-shoe.

And so the Model School has been required to do more than furnish a standard; it has been required, in addition, to furnish practice and training to enable the young teacher to conform to that standard. It has been made the scene of trial and effort, of attempts, successful and unsuccessful, to attain teaching skill. In it the candidate for pedagogical honors has been subjected to a practical apprenticeship. And when thus furnished and used, the institution has very properly been called a School of Practice.

But, inasmuch as the science of education has been, and still is, very imperfectly ascertained; inasmuch as many of its principles remain shrouded in doubt; it has come to pass that, in these subordinate schools, principles and processes are often put on trial, and the results noted. Theories and methods are subjected to experiment, in order to demonstrate their soundness or unsoundness, their utility or want of worth. These trials and their issues, are noted not alone by the young practitioners, but also by their instructors. And in this aspect the Model becomes an Experimental School, for the benefit of both the teachers and pupils of the Normal School.

Three uses, then, are sought to be subserved by these adjuncts to the Teachers' Seminary. They are to serve as models of good teaching and governing: they are to furnish apprentice work to the novitiate in teaching: and they are to furnish opportunity for experiments in educational principles and methods.

At the very outset, the question will arise whether, in any given case, we shall attempt to accomplish all these purposes in a single school, or whether there shall be a distinct school for each. Shall we have one school for a model, another for practice on principles and methods, and a third for experiment; or shall we endeavor to make the same school accomplish all three of these uses? Now, if children were only things to be operated upon, if the only point to be considered was the teaching of the teachers, the perfecting of the process of teaching and governing, this problem would be much simpler than it now is. When great experiments are to be tried, and important principles to be tested, it is not wise to be niggardly about the material to be experimented upon. We must be content to use up much of it in the effort to establish our results. In respect to inorganic things this is very obvious. You may utterly destroy a diamond in order to prove that the precious gem is combustible; and there is no doubt that the sacrifice is a wise one. The value of the knowledge gained is greater than that of the material sacrificed. But our feelings change as we come to deal with substances of greater dignity and value. We almost shake our heads at the declaration of the skillful oculist, that he had ruined a hat-full of eyes in acquiring his power. At least we are induced to ask whether the knowledge might not have been gained at a less fearful price. And the limit of the principle announced is soon reached when we come among the intellectual and moral attributes of the soul. In educational experiments, it is not too much to say that the principle is reversed. The material operated upon is worth more than the results obtained from the experiments. Or at least, we may say that no educational principle ought even to be established or ascertained by any process injurious to the mental or moral character of the subjects of the experiment. In other words, children have rights that the founders of Model Schools are bound to respect.

The Model School, using this term as a generic one for the present, must, therefore, not only be a means of culture to the young teachers, but it must also be a good school for the children. We have no right to cut up and mangle our young humanity for the sake of solving doubts in our pedagogical anatomy. Dead bodies may thus be used, but not living souls.

It will doubtless follow from this that one school is better than three, provided one can secure all the desired ends. It would seem to be unfair to the children to put some of them into a school meant for a model of excellence, while others are put into the hands of raw novitiates for practice or experiment.

Is it possible that one school will suffice for all the purposes above enumerated? It is undoubtedly entirely possible. Indeed it is not too much to say that these three functions can better be accomplished together than separately. Every young teacher needs the inspiration that comes from seeing things well done, but he also needs the stimulus that is supplied by the pressing necessity for improvement in his own work. He needs to be constantly reminded of two things, that good teaching and good management are possible, and that his own work now falls below the true standard.

These conditions are supplied when the Model School is under the supervision of a thoroughly accomplished teacher, who himself does some part of the work of teaching, and when the remaining classes are entrusted to the apprentices. And the work done by these last should include as much of variety as possible. Both teaching and governing must be required of them. The situations into which they are thrown must be natural. Their difficulties must be such as will actually beset the teacher in his after-work. They must as much as possible be left alone with the children to encounter whatever of opposition will naturally arise. Suggestions may and must come from the skilled superior, but only suggestions. If the principal is always at hand to step in and render his powerful aid in every really difficult case; if he is relied upon to reduce to order the very turbulent, and to arouse to mental life the very stupid; in other words, if the young teacher leans upon him in meeting every genuine difficulty, the benefit of the teaching practice to that young person will be greatly diminished. He will only learn to do the easy things, but will acquire no power over the serious obstructions to success.

The element of naturalness in the practice of the pupil-teacher, is not always as carefully observed as it deserves to be. Suppose that this practice consists of teaching exercises before a class of Normal students, who are expected to put themselves into the attitude of young children, and in their remarks and answers to questions, to set forth the peculiarities and necessities of childhood, how many of the real conditions of teaching are furnished here? How many of its real difficulties are encountered? The process is much like a sham fight on a holiday parade. The tug of war is hardly in it. Useful it is, no doubt, but as a discipline greatly inferior to an engagement in which there is an enemy in earnest. The mental difficulties of adults are not the same as those of children, and it is almost impossible for the former successfully to counterfeit the latter. In the attempt to answer as children would answer, adults are liable to serious errors. And even when they succeed, the success is attained by a careful exercise of mind, that if given to the subject taught, might elicit new and valuable truth. Inferences drawn from such an exercise cannot be depended upon. You cannot certainly tell how far the children will follow the precise programme marked out for them. They may go as their imitators have supposed they would, but they may not. No beings except children act exactly as children do, and if you would be sure that your educational processes will pass muster with them, you must try the experiment upon them.

And this principle of naturalness may also be violated by any method that frequently changes the instructors of the children, and substitutes for the continued personal influence of one teacher a frequent change of novitiates under the supervision of some higher officer, who does not himself teach. I do not condemn this latter method as having no worth, for I know that it is in use in Normal Schools of high character and eminent success. My only purpose is to raise the question before this convention, whether another way may not have some advantages over this. The true natural status of a school is that of being under the same tuition day after day and month after month. The processes and methods must be continuous; must be used after they become old, after the charm of novelty has worn off. Mere present expedients do not meet the wants of the true teacher. He must employ forces that can stand the test of every-day use. The ancient orator found consolation in the fact that he would be called upon to meet his audience but once. The teacher can indulge in no such quieting of his anxieties. Permanency is a prime element in every effort of his that has any value. Many a one can interest a class for an hour, or a day, or a week, whose resources may afterwards give out, and leave him without power to hold or to inspire.

But there is another view of this. Not only is it true that the superficial teacher is in danger of being shown up by the lapse of time, but he who is thorough and faithful, needs time in which to show forth his powers, to bring them to bear upon a class. His influence accumulates,—piles up,—with every honest, earnest day's work. Every new day adds to his magnetism, to his ability to arouse or restrain the minds with whom he deals.

The apprenticeship, therefore, that would leave out of view this element of permanency, evidently fails to represent the work of teaching in its natural surroundings. It leaves out the most serious difficulties as well as the most efficient of the favorable forces in teaching. In such an experience, the young teacher encounters difficulties that will not appear in his after-teaching, and fails to meet those that will inevitably come to him.

Practice in the Model School is intended to accomplish two things: first, to improve the teaching ability of the pupil-teacher, and secondly, to furnish a test by which the Normal authorities can judge of his teaching merits. It is fair to say that neither of these ends can be accomplished unless the work is done under natural and proper conditions. The impossibility of giving the young person any fitting culture by an experience in which these conditions are wanting, has already been shown. How will it be in respect to rating his worth, and classing him as a teacher? How do we try men's ability to do any given thing? Because a man can preach a sermon, shall we infer that he can skillfully run a locomotive? Or because he can seem to manage a machine, with a superior at his elbow to set him right in case of mistakes, are we assured that he may safely be entrusted with it alone in new and untried relations and attitudes?

So with the young teacher. If you wish to be certain in your judgments of him, you must try him, not in some artificial attitude,—in some adjustment of circumstances impossible in any phase of real teaching, but you must encircle him with the circumstances that will always surround him, and arm him with the forces that will always be at his command.

Of course this adjustment can only be approximately reached. Some of the functions of school-keeping cannot be fully and practically illustrated in a Model School. Among these are the duties and responsibilities of the head or principal of an institution. These can only be seen afar off by any one except him upon whom they are laid. And this is but another application of the principle already announced. We learn to do things by doing them. And, as it is manifestly impossible for a pupil teacher to bear the actual responsibilities of the whole establishment in which he is trained, so his training cannot thoroughly and fully prepare him to meet them. But I see no reason why there may not in the Model School be a complete and natural preparation for all the duties of an assistant teacher. The attitude and duties of a pupil-teacher are very nearly the same as those of an ordinary assistant. The chief difference between the two is in the compensation received for their work: one is paid in money, and the other in an increase of teaching skill.

How then shall the Model School be adjusted, so that it may subserve the best purpose?

1. Let it be divided into different grades, beginning with the most elementary Primary, and extending through a thoroughly organized High School. If the Normal School is to furnish teachers for all grades of instruction, the Model School must furnish training and a model for all. Hence the necessity of these grades for it.

2. Let each of these grades be under the immediate charge of an accomplished and efficient teacher, who shall give instruction to a few classes. A Model School must be a model, and that it cannot be without a model teacher. Mere theorists will not do for such a post. And mere empirics, whose only accomplishment is a sleight of hand, are equally unfit. Correct theories there must be, but they must have been tried, and the hand of the master have become accustomed to every movement necessary to the successful managing of a school. An important part of the duty of such a teacher will be the oversight of the pupil-teachers' work, and the correcting of their errors, which is to be done in connection with the head of the Normal School. To discharge this duty well, it is clear that he must have in his mind a correct theory of teaching-methods and school management.

3. At the beginning of each term, let such pupils as are properly prepared, be designated and assigned to classes in the different grades of the Model School.

This must be done by the Normal School authorities. Before being appointed as teacher of a class, the Normal pupil should have some elementary instruction in modes of teaching and governing. He ought not to enter upon the work in total ignorance of its philosophy and methods. The class should occupy the time of the pupil-teacher for about forty-five minutes each day, besides the time required for preparing the lessons, leaving the remaining hours of the day for the ordinary Normal School work. The same teacher must continue in charge of the class during the term.

4. Let the work of these pupil-teachers be under the constant daily supervision of the principal of the grade in which they are employed, and of the Normal School authorities. At every visit made by either party, the work of the young teacher should be marked on a merit scale, so that at the end of the term his standing as a teacher may be determined, very justly and fairly, by taking an average of these marks. Of this average a record should be kept in a permanent book, together with a statement of the branch taught and the grade of the work. This will be of very great use in after-time in determining the fitness of the person for any proposed situation.

5. Let there be a stated meeting once in every few days of the pupil-teachers and the principals of grades, under the supervision of the head of the Normal School, for the purpose of talking over the affairs of the classes, including the methods that have been pursued, the degree of success obtained, the failures encountered and the causes of them, the degree of interest existing, and how it may be improved,—and other things having a practical bearing upon the work. As a preparation for such meetings, let the visitors, when marking the work in their daily rounds, note down any matter that they think it will be useful to discuss.

6. Occasionally, once a week or thereabout, let there be an exhibition before the entire Normal School, of the methods of teaching and governing employed by some one of the pupil-teachers. In other words, let a recitation be conducted in the presence of the school. Let this exercise be freely and fully discussed, and thoughtfully criticized by pupils and faculty. By this method the benefit of the teaching in the Model School will be extended to all the students of the Normal. To make it most useful, however, the discussion must be participated in by all. Every one must be ready to make some sort of statement as to the merit of the exercise. In this way the habit will be acquired of comparing methods, and forming a judgment about their character and degree of excellence.

7. Let every fault in teaching or governing be privately pointed out to the persons committing it, with the understanding always that it is to be at once corrected. This may be done by any authorized visitor that may observe anything to criticize.

8. The class, as already observed, is to be under the care of the same individual during the term. At the beginning of his work with the class, the principal of the grade must make known to him the precise point at which his pupils have arrived; and for a reasonable progress from this point, to be made during the term, the pupil-teacher must be held responsible. The status of the class at the end of the term, must be determined by examination.

9. Let, say, four successful terms of such teaching be required of every candidate for graduation in the Normal School. It will generally be useful to give

in these terms of teaching as much variety in the subjects taught as possible. One term may be given to Reading, another to Arithmetic, another to Grammar, another to Geography or History or some other still different subject. To those who desire preparation for primary teaching, classes in Elementary Botany, in Language, and in the elements of the common branches may be assigned.

10. In addition to the various ways already enumerated of noting the work of the pupil-teacher, it will be useful to constitute the Senior Class in the Normal School a Visiting Committee, and to require them to write careful reviews of the teaching they observe, noting its excellencies and defects, and giving reasons based upon a sound philosophy for the opinions expressed and conclusions reached.

The preceding Paper being open for discussion, Miss ANNA C. BRACKETT, Principal of the St. Louis Normal School, continued the subject by reading the following paper, entitled "The Normal School its own Model School."

THE NORMAL SCHOOL ITS OWN MODEL SCHOOL!

The Model School, in the technical sense in which we use the word, exists for the Normal School of which it forms a part and has no independent existence.

This being the case one can hardly speak of it without considering somewhat in detail the Normal School, its special mark and methods. This essay has therefore to ask indulgence if it seems at first not to touch directly the subject under discussion.

The number of tools existing serves as a sure index of the different operations to be performed, the number steadily increasing as civilized life becomes more complex. So an institution denotes a special work to be done. But the teachers of Normal Schools are often confronted with the statement, that higher culture can be obtained in other schools; and that higher culture is after all the best and only means of making good teachers. From this statement the transition easily follows to the saying, that Normal Schools are an unnecessary appendage to our Educational institutions; and the practical consequence also follows, that they often become simply High Schools, thus working out the assumption into a reality. It is easily granted as a general statement that the object of all education is the spiritual culture and elevation of the student; but this statement looks to the individual alone, and does not concern itself with the truth, that while a unit he also forms a part of the unit of the State, and that, the State, for its own needs demands of each individual, a somewhat one-sided development, quite different from the development of the savage man who must do all things for himself. Accordingly we have many kinds of technical schools, for mining, for navigation, for engineering, which do this one-sided work. It behoves us, as representatives of Normal Schools, then, to be able to show in what they should differ from other schools for pupils of the same age. If we fail in showing this, not only by words, but by actual practice in our schools, we shall stand convicted of being unneccessary.

We must first be granted the proposition, that to take is not the same as to give, or to follow the same as to lead, that the two require different activities, activities not differing in quantity but in quality. For example—to understand an explanation as it is given by a skillful teacher is a very different thing from giving it ourselves to another; to assent to the different steps in the dialectic of Socrates and to perceive at last the irresistible conclusion from our own admission, is by no means the same, as, while seeing early the point aimed at, to construct the steps which shall lead to it. To know that a statement is incorrect is different from showing exactly why and how and where it is incorrect. Turning from the special work of instruction to the managing and governing a school, to follow directions and carry out programmes, is by no means the same as planning and giving directions, and constructing the programmes. To obey regulations, and thus help to maintain established order, is a very different thing from controlling fifty or sixty other individuals, and holding them quiet and still. The first of these is the work of the receiver, the second of the giver; the first of the follower, the second of the leader; the first of the pupil, the second of the teacher. This I think, will be allowed. We are then to show in what way we can teach the art of Pedagogy. I use this term for want of a better, that I may be understood to refer to the executive as well as to the educational province of a teacher in a Public School, for it is of these we have to speak. This might be considered a superfluous work here, had I not recently read the statement of the principal of the Normal School, that "the training of the pupils as students differs not essentially from the work done in other schools, except in its greater thoroughness," and the Report of another at the head of a similar institution, recommends that the special instruction be limited to the reading of lectures on the Theory and Practice of teaching the Normal students reciting in every other study with classes of pupils not preparing to teach.

It would rather appear to me, that a Normal School does differ essentially from others, both in recitations and in discipline, and also that in consequence of this, it should always be a separate and distinct instruction throughout. It would appear to me, that one ought always to be able to decide by the manner of the recitation, on whatever subject, that he was in a Normal, and not in a High School; and it would also appear that the character of the regulations should differ essentially from those in any other school. I ask your forbearance while I attempt to sketch some of the characteristics of a Normal School. To make myself clear, I shall be obliged to speak of details which are in themselves little, but I shall appeal from criticism in this particular to the Greek philosopher, whose fame had become so widely celebrated, that certain persons came from far, through curiosity to see so great a man. When they arrived, it happened that they found him warming himself in a kitchen. The meanness of the place occasioned them to stop, upon which the philosopher thus accosted them: " Enter boldly, for here too, there are Gods."

I know that as long as we draw the majority of our pupils from Grammar Schools, we must not forget to give as much general culture, and as much love for it as is possible in our limited time. But this is not our special work. It is for us only an accident of circumstance, and may be passed over here as not on our predetermined track. I mention it however that I may not be misrepresented as not demanding the highest possible culture for our pupils, or as being satisfied with anything less than the highest development and culture in those who are Normal School teachers. They should be broad and generous men and women, not narrowed by any lines of party or sect, men and women of a capacity for endless growth, of an exhaustless mental energy, of widest information, most æsthetic cultivation and deepest insight—not teachers who are able only to give "a small number of known truths, but those who give perhaps only one truth, but in doing so open before their pupils, the prospect of an infinity of unknown truths."

I assert, then, first, that it is the province of a Normal School to teach the *How* more than the *What*. This however, by no means implies that the instruction is to be in the form of lectures to the students. This form of instruction is less admissible in a Normal School than in any other, as will hereafter appear. Nor does it imply as has been asserted, that the best Normal School teaching is the example of a good teacher before his class. In that case, Normal Schools would be of course unnecessary. I may illustrate here by quoting from a criticism on French Universities by Herr von Sybel, Professor of History, at the University of Bonn. He says, "In France, the teacher announces the results of researches, which have often been very long and laborious, but he does not say a word to his hearers of the intellectual operations by which these results have been reached. In Germany, on the other hand, the endeavor is to teach the method of a science. The attempt is made, not to make him a *savant*, but to give him a clear idea of the problems of science, and of the operations by which these problems are solved." The Normal School teacher must follow the plan of the German and not of the French professor.

We cannot then judge by the printed programme of recitations in a Normal School, whether or no it is doing its own work. The recitations may be only in Grammar, Arithmetic and Geography, but the question is not in *what* they are reciting, but how the recitation is conducted. This, in connection with any peculiar regulations of the school, is exactly what is meant by the term "Normal Drill," which is so vaguely used. It is what is meant when a teacher makes of us the modest request, that we would write him a short letter, giving him our idea of Normal teaching, but the request itself shows how vague the ideas of most teachers are on the subject of what a Normal School is.

At no time during any recitation in a Normal School should the object of the school be forgotten, but the recitations fall into two classes: those which are carried on exactly as they should be carried on in any other school, and those which are not. To the first class belong Drawing, Writing, Spelling, Reading and Men-Arithmetic, the recitations in which and the arrangements for which may form a model, which the pupils can exactly follow in their own schools, till they are able to improve it. But in the other class, into which will fall Geography, Grammar, Arithmetic, and whatever higher studies may belong to the course, it may not be so easy to determine the manner of recitation. We do not expect to make of these model recitations, in the sense we have mentioned with regard to the other class. It is not necessary, nor is it even desirable that the pupils should use the same text-books they are in future to teach, and they must be taught many things which it will not be their duty to teach to young children. The Normal School pupils, before they leave, should have their attention called to the distinction between these two classes of recitations, in order that they may escape the error, into which many Normal graduates of inexperience have fallen, of attempting to teach Arithmetic, for instance, in their schools, in the same way in which it was taught them in the Normal School. They soon learn their mistake and rectify it, but then they fall into the reverse error of imagining that their training in the Normal Schools was not the proper thing for them.

This second error does not give them as much trouble as the first, unless they come to teach in a Normal School, and endeavor to carry it out in practice, when they find that they are making machine teachers, developing a trade and not an art, and are again compelled to return to the old ways, but with more wisdom to guide them.

Taking, then, our second class of recitations into consideration; in the first place, the whole burden of the recitation should be thrown upon the pupil. The teacher should, at the very beginning, place himself in the pupil's position. He is there to be instructed on the lesson of the day. He gives his close attention, he is of average capacity, and he is willing to understand, but no help can come from him, because he knows nothing beyond what he is told at the time, and what he has been told before under similar circumstances. He may ask questions, but he asks them ignorant of their answer, and consequently they are not always quite clear. He is a willing pupil, but he demands to be taught. He is puzzled by unnecessary words, circumlocution and repetitions. He is not himself able to catch an obscurely expressed meaning, and is much confused by words without meaning, nor is he able to receive disconnected and disjointed facts, and arrange them for himself. He must have clearly pointed out to him which are the important facts and which are of comparative unimportance, for he is continually liable to grasp the latter more firmly than the former. His imagination not being very active, he finds it very difficult, in fact impossible, to conceive of a figure spoken of, without seeing it clearly drawn on the board, and drawn moreover at the same time that it is described line by line. From the same cause, he must have all mathematical works on the board, arranged in the most logical order, and in the most accurate way; and this, too, must be written while it is explained, for, being rather slow of comprehension, he cannot follow step by step, the whole work completed. He can draw illustrations and write work himself if directed, but he understands always, that the person who is giving the directions means exactly, what she says neither more nor less, and he always follows those directions implicitly and unquestioningly. If in so doing, the figure turns out otherwise than was desired, or the wrong result appears in the work, he demands to be shown exactly where, how, and why the error was made. He desires his information or rules put at last, into as general a form as possible, and is very desirous of blank forms, which will fit many special cases. Being chary of time, he demands always the shortest possible amount of time used in writing, and hence is annoyed by any word which can be abbreviated into letters or signs. His attention is liable to be distracted by any swaying motion on the part of his teacher, or any habit of leaning, or playing with chalk or pointers, or anything at hand, and he understands better when his teacher confronts him full face, and looks him and the class straight in the eye, and talks in a conversational and animated tone, not as if she were recalling something she had read. So much for the teacher-pupil, and the manner in which the recitation should be conducted; of course this cannot be successfully carried out, except with classes who have been trained to it; and therefore can be found perfectly developed only in the senior class, but it should be *expected* from every class in the school, from the moment of their entrance. This entire reversal of position, the being thrown upon one's own power and not helped out, is one of the reasons why pupils find the first months of a Normal School drill so puzzling and discouraging. They are put into the position of givers and no more into that of receivers, and they cannot at once adapt themselves to the new order.

Let me call attention to some other peculiarities in the matter of Normal School recitations. Much of a teacher's time will be spent in giving directions to others. To do this well, she must be able to distinguish clearly in her own mind between really significant and comparatively insignificant facts, and to group the latter around the former; one fact is not as good as another, as the most inveterate Gradgrind every day practically admits. Military orders are directions reduced to their lowest terms; for, in two words, they give all that is necessary for the soldier to know—the *what*, the *how*, and the *when*. The courtesy of the school-room forbids such a complete reduction to the teacher, but he should know how to reduce as far as possible, and he should have much practice in giving such directions. As a means of training in this, nothing is of more value than the practice of analyzing lessons. "Our author has been talking for half a page. Just what has he been driving at in all that space? Why did he state this fact? What bearing has it upon his main object? Did he state this for its own sake, or to enable him to state something else?" These analyses should be prepared and recited on every lesson, the main and subordinate heads being classified and arranged, till the whole lesson stands in skeleton form upon the board. Such training as this not only helps in giving clear directions, but adds to executive power. So much time on this is not necessary in any other school.

Much, too, of the teacher's time will be spent in correcting errors, and therefore much time in a Normal School must be given to criticism—I mean clear and defined criticism. It is not enough to say that the statement was wrong. We must know exactly why and how to correct it. The eye and the ear must be so trained to watch, that they will instantly detect error. Much practice in this belongs exclusively to Normal School drill. Much time should also be given to question-making as an art, and much practice in it. Poor questions should be pointed out, and the reason why they are poor shown. This also is peculiar to Normal Schools. More care than elsewhere should be spent on the form in which a thing is done. For instance, great care should be taken as to the *form* of the answers in a written examination.

Teaching is a business, and those who are to enter it, must be accustomed to business-like forms. All these things and many more which crowd for utterance demand that classes in a Normal School should be smaller than in other schools. More individual work must be done, and more practice in expression must be given, than can be allowed in a class of forty or fifty.

Only in the recitation in the Theory and Art of Teaching, should the Normal School teacher resume his position of instructor. There, only, is any approach to lecturing appropriate. There he has an opportunity to inculcate opinions, and to give methods based upon the experience of many educators. To this recitation the widest wisdom and insight should be made to contribute, and while the freest discussion should be allowed, the pupil should be led to see that the gathered wisdom of the past is to be reverenced and obeyed by them. They should see that it is only by its means that man excels the bee or the beaver, and can build better than his ancestors before him. Hence they must be furnished with already deduced principles and approved methods.

If, on hearing these things said of recitations, some one should reply that they could be carried out in any High School, and should be, in any well-conducted recitation, being good in themselves; I answer that mechanical drawing is good also, and cultivates accuracy and a steady hand, but it would not be desirable to introduce it as a regular feature in a Medical school. If one had time to do everything, it might be well for a surgeon to practice it; but to spend time in the direction indicated with those who are to go into society simply, or to become accountants, or business men, or physicians, or lawyers, would be unwise. Everything I have mentioned bears directly on the special work of the educator.

I think I have already indicated another and a different atmosphere than that of a school for general culture (as a High School or an Academy) in this rapid sketch of some of the peculiarities of a Normal School recitation, but the difference will become perhaps more apparent, as we consider the regulations and discipline.

The boys and girls of America grow too rapidly into young men and women; and in a High School, there is no need of urging them on in this direction, but in a Normal School this needs to be done, for we must make men and women of our pupils before we can make teachers of them. Therefore, the sense of responsibility should be most assiduously cultivated in the pupils. Every duty, every care that can be thrown upon them should be thus disposed of, and then no excuse should be received for neglect or failure. As soon as they enter the school, they should be put on a business footing. They have before felt that they could lean somewhat upon their teachers for advice, and the good *intention* has been accepted when the *performance* failed. But in business, this cannot be so; a note is protested if it is not paid, even though the maker has used every effort to cancel it; and our pupils must learn to suffer, without stint, the results of their performance or omission. Many requisitions must be made of them, and they must be held strictly to punctuality and exactness in their fulfilment, and only the same excuses for tardiness, absence, or dismission should be allowed which will serve them when teachers.

The discipline and order which may be considered unnecessary in a High School, are indispensable here. Everything should be done on exact time and with perfect regularity, not for the sake of the Normal School, but that the pupils may know what order means. They should be required to control themselves in every way. If a door opens, not a single head should turn. Even the features of the face should be under control, for hereafter before their own pupils they must be able to govern them. Every room and hall, not excepting the wardrobes and the reference library, should be at all times and in the smallest particulars, a model of perfect order, and the pupils' desks should be expected to show the same, not only in having the books, etc., arranged in rows or piles, but in having them arranged in the most convenient way for use, books which belong together and are to be used at the same time being put together. A teacher is often obliged to use many words and much energy to secure order, simply because half of her efforts are neutralized in her pupils' mind, by the silent influence of her disordered dress, the maps which hang awry, the chalk on the floor, and the utter confusion of the articles in and on her own desk. The pupils should have their attention called to anything that is out of order, till they shall detect it at once; for often the whole question of success or failure in governing a school, depends on whether the teacher perceives disorder *in its beginnings.* It can then be easily overcome, but if it goes on, it may develop into a rebellion which is beyond her power. For this reason, too, the eye and ear must in every way be trained.

Quiet self-possession, or the want of it on the teachers' part, may also often settle the question of government, and no effort should be spared to cultivate this. Uncontrolled energy is as bad in its effects on a school of children as its absence, and embarrassment is no excuse for failure in a teacher. She has no right to be so embarrassed that she is not in full possession of all her faculties before any visitors, or under any circumstances; and, therefore, while embarrassment might be excusable in the pupils of any other school, it is not excusable here. I have before referred to the attention which should be paid to ways of speaking or standing.

Time forbids me to enter more at length into this subject, which seems to me of great importance, for these regulations and requisitions steadily carried out, are the small power applied at the long arm of the lever, and they go far to form and to fix habits, which, unconsciously to the teacher herself, render her work easy. It is by these means that we can teach the art of governing; and one of the chief aims of a Normal School should be, so to burn into its pupils these habits of order and method, that they shall become a second nature. In some cases they may become so much a second nature, that the graduate who governs easily and well, finds it so easy that she assumes the power to be natural to herself, and does not see that she gained anything at the Normal School. Such a statement may sometimes be accepted as the highest testimony to our success. I place, then, this forming of the habits necessary to a teacher, both in hearing recitations and in governing, as belonging to the special work of a Normal School; and it is for this reason that a few months spent there should not entitle one to its diploma. The value of the school consists as much in this as in the actual amount of knowledge gained, and for it to accomplish its special work, a steady and long attendance is required. I have tried to confine myself more to the manner than the matter, in speaking of recitations, partly in order to establish this point.

To accomplish these objects fully, a Model School is very desirable; but by a Model School I do not mean a school in which the Normal pupils shall themselves be required to teach. I mean simply a school conveniently located, which is a Model School in every respect, governed and taught by first-class teachers, and which the pupils of the Senior Class of the Normal School shall be required to visit and observe, at stated times, as a class, and in company with a teacher. They need this to learn what the capacities of children of different ages are, so that they may not lose time in making attempts to give them what they cannot take. They need it as a part of their mental training. They should then be required to give full and accurate reports of what was done during their visit. Their first accounts probably will be very vague and general; will consist of delighted praises of the order and pleasantness of the room, and the capacity of the teacher; but why the room was so pleasant, or in what the questions of the teacher were good, or exactly why he asked such and such questions, or what was the general result of the recitation, they are wholly unable to tell. Such reports are, of course, not very valuable, and the pupils themselves will be made to see this. By judicious conversation and leading, they are then to be made to appreciate what is necessary, in order that one may give a clear and detailed report of the proceeding, and such reports can be after a time obtained from them. They should be accustomed to give them, not only in writing but orally, and when they can do this well, they have learned invaluable lessons. This practice would not be of value, unless the recitations in the Model School were conducted by competent persons. For the pupils to observe the experiments of their own inexperienced classmates may do as much harm as good, and to hear recitations themselves, for two or three weeks or even months on any given subject, when they do not have the responsibility of the school, is of very doubtful value. It would appear to me, that the same time was of more value, spent in the Normal School, under such training as I have hinted at, than in such experimenting. Our course of two or three years is none too long to give them the training they need. Let them follow it steadily through, these visits to the Model School, and the Reports thereon constituting a part of it. They are to be tested and watched individually through it all, and the school must have the power of sifting from its members all who fail decidedly in standing its tests. Then let the graduates go out into the schools of the city or town: at first, they may not be assigned regularly to permanent places, but required to fill temporary vacancies for some months. In this way they gain an idea of the whole system of the schools of a city, which they can gain in no other way, and which assists greatly in making them realize that, as a part of so great a whole, they must cheerfully yield to regulations which are for the good of the whole, and that the work in any room of any school is not isolated, but an essential organic part of a total. After some months of this work, they are ready for a permanent appointment, in which they will find it easy to succeed. For State schools which send their pupils over the State, such an arrangement would be impossible, subsequent to graduation. But the arrangement of a true Model School, as a part of the training, a Model School for observation and not for practice, is possible; and I would ask whether, to an experienced student, the time would not be more valuable spent in this way, than in making short experiments himself in a class-room, or watching the blunders of his classmates in the same place. Every Normal School needs a Model School in all grades, but it should be a school taught only by first-class teachers and for observation alone—otherwise it can be a Model School only in name.

MODEL SCHOOLS IN CONNECTION WITH NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Prof. William F. Phelps, of Minnesota, read the following, submitted by J H. HOOSE, Principal of the State Normal and Training School, Cortland, New York, regarding "Model Schools in connection with Normal Schools."

1. If by "Model School" be meant a school in which the Normal student is required to observe the workings of others—to look on mostly, rather than to do—if this be the "Model School," in its main purposes, then is a Normal School not obtaining that aid, which it is both the duty and the privilege of the Model School to afford to graduates of Normal Schools.

II. If by "Model School," be meant a school in which the Normal pupil shall devote himself for a specified time—suppose from four to six of the last months before graduation—to actual school work in its hourly routine of duties, then "Model Schools" afford superior advantages to the Normal graduate.

But under these circumstances, there would be required for the benefit of the student graduating:

Criticism—Which should be
1. Searching.
2. Judicious.
3. Constant—daily.
4. Thoroughly honest and kind.
5. Exhaustive.

Being given
1. In details.
2. In generals.

Note. These criticisms should be made to the student, and should notice:

(*a*) Failures—Arising from
1. Lack of natural ability.
2. " " scholarship.
3. " " tact.
4. " " favorable circumstances beyond control of student.
5. Lack of self-progress.

(*b*) Successes—Arising from
1. Natural ability
2. Scholarship.
3. Tact.
4. Favorable circumstances.
5. Progressiveness of self.

(c) Tests of success—Principally shown by
- 1. Self-progress—in the essential elements of it.
- 2. The advancement of those taught.

Remark. Perhaps the most important teacher in the Normal Faculty is the Critic. This person should be characterized by:

1. Sound active piety.
2. Warm-heartedness—a nature of great sympathy.
3. Genuine desire and love to see others improve, even though the scholar excel the teacher.
4. Great delicacy and tact in making criticisms, that shall not give unnecessary pain to the criticised.
5. Superior skill in detecting what is usually known as "The general drift of things."
6. An intimate, practical knowledge of the phenomena and laws of activities of the human soul.
7. Extended and critical scholarship.
8. Extended and varied experience in teaching.
9. Peculiar skill in saying just the right thing at the time of special need—and also an ability to preserve a judicious silence at other times.

Finally: Without further remark, it is submitted, as the very firm conviction of the writer, that no Normal School is capable of accomplishing the high and just purposes of its establishment, if there is not connected with it a School of Practice, in which shall be found:

1. Sufficiently commodious school-rooms.
2. A sufficient number of pupils in regularly graded classes to furnish extended practice—even from the Primary to the Academic or High School grades.
3. Competent Critics.
4. Required practice of Normal students for some months—during which time this practice shall occupy their entire attention.

Prof. William F. Phelps, Principal of the State Normal School, Winona, Minnesota, continued the discussion. He said:

A Model School, as its name imports, is a model to be observed and studied as such. It is one of the means employed in a good Normal School for the training of teachers. It aids or should aid in giving to the pupil-teacher a *true ideal* of his future work. He should enter it with note-book in hand and make an accurate minute of all that he sees, in order that the methods employed, with their underlying principles, may be carefully examined and discussed in the class-room of the Normal School. I have said that the Model School is *one* of the means of imparting a correct ideal of the teacher's work. Let me add, that I believe it to be one of the *very best* means to this end.

But it must be a model in the true sense of the term. To be such, it must possess the conditions requisite to become so. It cannot, in my judgment, be at the same time a Model School and a School of Practice. A Model School can be made so only by model teachers,—teachers of the highest style of excellence. A School of Practice must necessarily be taught and conducted mainly by transient teachers, many of whom are mere tyros in the work, and hence, incapable of affording true models either of teaching or management. The Model School should be taught, therefore, almost exclusively by permanent, skillful, experienced teachers, in order to answer its specific purpose.

I grant the necessity of affording to the Normal student abundant opportunities for practice under careful, scrutinizing supervision. But this should be done in a "School of Practice" or "Experimental School," *after* an opportunity for abundant observation in the Model School. He goes to the Model School to obtain his ideal. He should go into the School of Practice to realize, as far as possible, that ideal, with a competent critic to observe his work and point out his errors. The *experiment* which must needs be done in a school of this kind, will presenting as I have before suggested, the realization of the highest types of excellence, or models in teaching. Hence the Model School should be a separate thing from the School of Practice, or Experimental School. An institution for training teachers should have both. But if it attempt to combine both in one, it can only partially succeed in fulfilling the designs of either.

I am aware, Mr. President, that we have Normal Schools that are doing much good without the aid of either the Model or Experimental departments. But it would not be difficult to show that they would do still better, because more *practical*, work with these adjuncts. Indeed, I should consider a Normal School, without these agencies, as shorn of much of its strength. The suggestions of the papers of Dr. Edwards meet my hearty approval in this view; I differ from him only on these few matters of detail in organization.

Dr. J. H. Sangster, Superintendent of the Normal School of Toronto, agreed with President Edwards, and continued the discussion as follows:

A Normal School cannot be successfully conducted without Practice Schools. I would not separate the Model from the Practice School. I have seen them successfully operated in connection, in Toronto. In the early work of the Model School, there the end was considered merely to keep order. We have corrected this mistake now, and the instruction is of the best kind. The fees of admission are higher than those of the High School. Notwithstanding Toronto is abundantly supplied with excellent schools; the Model School has four hundred pupils, all it can accommodate, and more than a thousand registered applicants are waiting their turn to enter. Teachers are also desirous to enter the Model School as teachers. We have Model Schools of both boys and girls; three of each. Our pupil-teachers are instructed in modes of teaching, school management, and the principles of education. No pupil is allowed to teach in the practice school until methods of education have been discussed, neither are our pupils allowed to put in practice their own methods, but are required to use Normal School methods. They are left free when they leave school. They are required to report any deviation from the plans indicated to them. After having heard methods in reading discussed, they are to hold themselves ready to hear reading classes and the same for each subject. The regular teacher conducts a sufficient number of classes to give unity to the whole. The children are tested by written per cent. examinations. The element of competition prevents laxity. The model teacher keeps a record, and these reports are given to the head master or mistress. The pupil-teachers prepare carefully, the day before, all the work that is presented.

Normal Schools cannot make teaching talent. Some must be required to withdraw. Certificates depend largely upon success in the Model School. Pupils averaging as low as four or five are not passed by the authorities. Such is the reputation of our graduates, that it is a usual thing that, when a teacher is advertised for, it is stated that he or she must be a Normal School graduate.

Mr. Hancock inquired if candidates were tested on examination upon teaching abilities.

Mr. Sangster explained that there were three grades of certificates. The highest grade could not be secured without Normal School, or practical experience.

Mr. Phelps inquired how long each pupil taught in the Model School.

Mr. Sangster. Each pupil spends every sixth day in teaching.

The Section then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 23.

The Section met at nine o'clock A. M., and was opened by devotional exercises, conducted by Dr. EDWARDS of Illinois.

The programme being interrupted by the absence of Mr. VERRIL, of Pennsylvania, who was to have read a paper at this hour on "A graded system of Normal Schools," the section met, by invitation, with the Superintendent's Section, President WHITE in the chair, and listened to the reading and the discussion of the paper of Hon. J. D. PHILBRICK, of Boston.

(For report see Wednesday's proceedings of the Superintendent's Section.)

Prof. C. C. Rounds, of the Normal School of Farmington, Maine. The question of graded Normal Schools is evidently one of deep interest to the educators of the West, as is shown by its prominence at this and former meetings of the Association. With us of the Eastern States it has not yet excited equal interest. You move faster in the West.

In organizing a graded system of Normal Schools, the vital question is, "Shall we grade *up or down?*" Our Eastern schools have been organized with courses of two years, and in some cases we have now advanced courses of two years more. We can not afford to lower this standard. A large part of even our short two years' course is devoted to preparatory work. Our Normal Schools are only in part Normal. They are *obliged* to give time to culture which should be devoted to professional training, and we see no possibility of at once avoiding this. Yet we need more culture, more scholarship, than it is now possible to attain. Our professional training must be made to rest on a broader base. The tendency of narrow culture in the teacher may be seen in much of the so-called object teaching of the present day. Very much of this is really *objectless* teaching; it leads to no results in subsequent study. Much of it is systemless; it bears no fruit in scientific attainment. A teacher of lively imagination may interest pupils for a time in lessons upon any objects whatever; but, unless the ideas thus acquired are organized into systems of thought, the end is but in part attained. Children may be made to think upon a great variety of subjects, but in fact the really effective thought of the world has as yet moved in not many channels.

Yet it is evident that if the standard of the Normal Schools be kept at the present point, other agencies are needed. But a small proportion of the public schools can be supplied with graduates of even two years' courses of Normal School training. These needed agencies I believe to be partly operative in institutes, as we find them organized in various States. A graded system of institutes, working in connection with the Normal Schools, might effect much. The short institutes of one or two weeks are doing a good work. Next we find the county institutes of four or six weeks. These can do much more. Let County Superintendents and others connected with public instruction select the young men and young women best fitted to avail themselves of these privileges, and encourage their attendance. Let a certificate, showing thoroughness in the work of each grade, be at the same time a certificate for admission to the next grade above. If by this means we can bring up to the Normal Schools persons of sufficient maturity and scholarship to enter at once upon a course of professional training, more can be effected in one year in the line of real Normal work than is now accomplished by our usual two years' course. From this point we should proceed to grade the work further by organizing advanced courses. We need more training in science, in language, in methods, than it is now possible to give.

By these various related agencies, each doing its appropriate work, the wants of all teachers could be met. For those who can devote but little time to preparation for their work, we may have the brief Institute; for those who can give a longer time, the county institute, holding a longer session; for those who wish to fix themselves more thoroughly for their work, the Normal School.

Prof. W. F. Phelps, of Minnesota, Chairman of the Committee to report upon the opening address of President S. H. White, of the Normal Section, read the following report; the topic being the one under consideration.

The committee to whom was referred the paper of the President of the Normal Section, having had the same under consideration, respectfully submit:

That the careful statement of facts and statistics embodied in the paper, is of great value as a guide to the true solution of the "Normal School problem;" that we commend the paper to the thoughtful consideration of the friends of the cause generally, and especially to those who are laboring for the establishment of these institutions in localities where they do not exist.

The Committee believe that in this work, as in all other departments of human effort, the experience of the past is the safest guide in the work of the future.

While commending most cordially the facts referred to, however, the Committee feel compelled to differ with the author of the paper in the recommendations which form its closing portion. We do not believe that at this stage of our work, we are prepared to make a recommendation of the particular plans or schemes which have been tried in a single State only. In the organization of a Normal School system by a State, much must depend upon the peculiar circumstances and conditions of education in that State. The plan which may work well in Pennsylvania, would certainly prove a failure in the newer States, while its success would be very doubtful in many of the older communities, whose private enterprise would be indisposed to take the risks which the Pennsylvania system demands. The Committee believe, that if it be the duty of the State to establish and support Common Schools for the education of its children, it is equally its duty to establish and support, at whatever necessary expense, a system of Normal Schools for the training of its teachers, without which, the experiment of popular education must fail; that, having adopted the policy of giving to its teachers a careful professional training, it must accept the consequences of that policy without regard to the needful expense of the undertaking. Every dollar judiciously expended in the training of teachers is sure to return to the State an hundred-fold for the investment it has made. Wealth is the product of intelligence. Poverty is one of the fruits of ignorance. The best, the surest, the cheapest method of increasing the wealth of the State, is to increase the sum total of its mental and moral power. It has been demonstrated over and over again, that educated labor is far more profitable than ignorant labor. Hence it is a legitimate inference, that there can be no better way of increasing material as well as mental and moral power, than by increasing the teaching power of the community. No matter what this latter work may cost, it will pay; it is more sure to pay than any other investment which the State can make, for there is no leakage or loss in the operation that is worthy of mention.

In making these remarks, the Committee do not mean to be understood as countenancing or advising extravagance or unnecessary expenditures, in any case whatever. They do believe in strict economy, and at the same time in a whole-hearted, generous liberality in this vital work of training teachers.

In conclusion the Committee venture to suggest, that further experience will undoubtedly lead to modifications in the organization of our Normal School system, which in turn will lead to greater results in proportion to the expenditures made, which is certainly a desirable consummation.

The Committee beg leave to submit for the consideration of the Section, the following resolution:

RESOLVED, that a Committee of five members of this Section be appointed by the Chair, to report at the next Annual Meeting, a plan for the more general extension of the Normal School system, to the end that its benefits may be secured to the great mass of the teachers of the country.

Respectfully submitted,
B. EDWARDS.
WM. F. PHELPS.
S. R. THOMPSON.

Hon. J. M. McKenzie, State Superintendent of Schools, Nebraska. I have come all the way from Nebraska to learn from these teachers and school officers who have had large experience and know of what they speak. We have a new state. We are not bound by old forms or precedents. We have great hopes for the future, for we can build from the foundation in the light of the experience of all these older states. Can we not at the outset indicate a plan of organization, of classification, and course of study? We want to settle a basis of operation in these new states. We must have something practical, not rhetoric merely. Will the gentlemen and ladies present help us to something definite and tangible?

Prof. G. P. Beard, Superintendent of Warrensburg Normal School, Missouri. The question proposed by Mr. MCKENZIE is one of great magnitude from the standpoint of Missouri. It is not practicable to furnish a normal graduate to every school; not even one to each county can be at present furnished. They can only become disseminators of educational knowledge. Let the institutes that are held through the State be made normal institutes. Let County Superintendents require teachers to attend; make attendance the condition of receiving a certificate. I do not approve of Normal Schools with three-month courses of study. Such schools will depreciate the quality of Normal School instruction. It is not *quantity* we want as much as *quality*. One thorough normal graduate will do more good than many superficial ones. Make them first-class teachers; and then, having had from two to four years' course, employ them as institute instructors. Let the State Normal Schools be first-class schools. A graduate from one of these short courses should not have a state diploma. They should not be so easily earned.

Hon. J. P. Wickersham. The Normal School question is a vital one in our educational growth. This system is in a process of development. Each State is solving this educational problem in its own way. There is danger by prescribing forms of cumbering this free and natural growth. Let each State be independent in the solution of the Normal School problem. We do not want to consolidate the system of Normal Schools by bringing them to any one plan of operation. All systems are full of imperfections yet. Let us East and West, be free to work out our own plans.

Some things can, however, be wisely said. In all our plans we should consider, first, the end to be accomplished; second, the means for its accomplishment.

First, then, What is the end we would secure? We would provide for every school, from the primary to the high school and college, a well-instructed and well-trained teacher.

Of the ten thousand teachers employed in Pennsylvania, five thousand are new annually. The present want is to secure well-trained teachers for all the permanent positions, and increase as far as possible the number of such positions; and then to elevate the standard of teachers' professional qualifications as much as possible in the temporary positions. How would I begin? I would first provide a single Normal School, (in Nebraska, for instance), for the training of permanent teachers. Fifty graduates per year would answer. I would have these teachers so located as would make them the centres of a Normal School interest. These teachers representing Normal Schools would help to build up such schools in their several localities. As fast as there is a sufficient demand for permanent teachers, organize new schools, and so build up a system. When circumstances seem to require it, when the demand for well-trained teachers will justify it, then, as in Pennsylvania and Illinois open county or sectional Normal Schools organically connected with the state schools. I think I would make them graded schools. We expect in Pennsylvania to provide twelve State Normal Schools, a system of county Normal Schools, and a Normal University.

Prof. Phelps stated that the committee his resolution called for was designed merely to investigate and to suggest plans. He would have it collect facts from all the Normal Schools in the country, digest all their plans, and present a plan of plans.

Mr. Hancock inquired the actual cost of Normal School instruction in the State of Pennsylvania.

Mr. Wickersham. $62,500. The pupils pay a proportion of the actual cost of tuition.

Mr. Hancock. How are the teachers paid?

Mr. Wickersham. The teachers are paid by these fees and by the State. The County Normal Schools are not supported by the State. The teachers pay tuition, which supports the twelve weeks' school.

Mr. McKenzie, of Nebraska. We have established a State Normal School. We have a prospective income of $10,000 per annum for this one Normal school. We have large means at command for school purposes. We want to know how to make the most of them. I would like a general plan. We can work out the details.

Hon. E. E. White, of Ohio. I congratulate this body in that it is getting nearer the great problem. We want a Normal system. Normal Schools and Normal Institutes are one in spirit and should work together. I have come to the conclusion that we in Ohio need three classes of Normal institutions. We want Normal Schools of a high order, that are competent to discuss the philosophy of education. These should be able to command the best teaching talent and experience. Then there needs to be another class of schools to gather in the temporary teachers, county schools, if you please. Man these with the best ability the means at command will secure. And, lower down still, let us have our local institutes. Our institutes are not up to the standard of excellence they should be. The State should take them in hand, and provide teachers for institute work, lest money be wasted. We want professional men in this work, not mere high school and college men. We want men who are full of the spirit of Normal instruction. When institutes and Normal Schools take hold of hands both will be stronger.

Dr. Edwards of Illinois, I do not think any committee can settle this question. I do not think it will hinder individual thought or investigation; if I did, I should certainly be opposed to it. But we must make progress, otherwise these meetings are futile. We must gather up thought and put it in shape. This such a committee may assist in doing. One objection to extending the Normal School system is the expense. This may as well be paid by the counties as by the states, county schools have the advantage of allowing people to manipulate their own affairs. In this respect the county Normal School offers advantages over the state school. The responsibility of these schools might be put upon the Board of Supervisors for their own culture. They would certainly become converted.

Mr. Hancock, of Ohio, feared the Supervisors might be educated at too great expense to the people, if this plan were adopted.

Upon call, the Report was received and adopted, and the Committee, in accordance with the resolution, was appointed as follows:

PROF. W. F. PHELPS, of Minnesota; Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, and Hon. E. E. WHITE, of Ohio; Prof. C. C. ROUNDS, of Maine, and J. L. PICKARD, of Illinois.

The regular order of the Superintendent's Section being "Compulsory Education," was taken up and occupied the remainder of this morning's session. A report will be found in the proceedings of the Superintendents' Section.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 24.

The Section met at nine o'clock, A. M., and listened to the reading of the paper by Dr. J. W. ARMSTRONG, of Fredonia, New York, on "Principles and Methods; their Character Place and Limitations in a Normal course." Mr. ARMSTRONG having been detained from attending the meeting, Prof. C. C. ROUNDS presented the paper.

PRINCIPLES AND METHODS; THEIR CHARACTER, PLACE AND LIMITATION, IN A NORMAL COURSE.

Thirty minutes is not too liberal an appropriation of time for the discussion of this important subject, but it will perhaps more than suffice for this paper.

A Normal course is arranged, ostensibly, for the purpose of fitting persons for the profession of teaching. In doing this successfully, it is necessary to consider the facts as they are. In teaching, as in every other profession, there are found two different classes of persons. The first of these classes is comparatively small, and is made up of those who are capable of soaring above all obstacles and difficulties, on the wings of genius, and, unconscious of effort, reach the finest results unscathed and unexhausted. The second, and far the larger class is made up of those who, like the essayist, are under the necessity of working their way slowly and laboriously *on foot;* patiently removing obstacles and surmounting difficulties, and reaching the desired results at last, if at all, weary and foot-sore, if not discouraged. These receive commonly but little sympathy from the more gifted class of co-laborers, and are hardly recognized in society by even their patrons and pupils.

If these two classes could be made properly to assist each other, the general labor might be lightened and the best results greatly multiplied, in addition to binding together in firmer bonds of sympathy and relationship the common brotherhood of educators. From her loftier elevation, genius sees the whole field of operations, every hill and valley, gorge and rock, every possible and impossible path. If she will condescend to become a guide, if she will be patient enough to wait for the ordinary traveler, and kind enough to the feeble and irresolute, she may lead her humbler rank and file through plainer and easier paths, teach them how to shun the greater difficulties, and point out unseen ways over or through obstructions which appears to them imtablerenpe.

In the work of education, genius has often acted as guide. Not only did the ancient sages of Egypt, China, Palestine, and Greece have their schools of philosophers and prophets; but Modern Europe and even America furnish examples of those who have not been ashamed to listen while genius speaks, or to avail themselves of the lines which she has for ages been laying down as guides, to the searchers after the right way. After all that has been done, the question still recurs: "How shall childhood and youth be most easily, certainly and safely led to a strong, virtuous, and cultivated manhood and womanhood?"

The "Character" of right methods of teaching may be illustrated by a comparison. They should be related to teaching, in a manner somewhat analogous to the way in which machinery is related to manufacturing. A man has a special genius for persuading the forces of nature to enter upon the work of spinning and weaving. With this definite end in view, he sets about devising and constructing machinery. He wishes the work to be done so completely by the machines, that only ordinary skill and care will be required in supervising the whole manufacture. He conquers every difficulty. He puts all his genius into the complicated organism. His thoughts, his purposes, his skill, are all incarnated in mechanical arrangements. The work is done. The attendants are all in their places. The power is applied. The wheels and levers begin to move and are found to do their work perfectly. The genius of the one inventor inspires the thousands of spindles, works a thousand looms, and figures out from each his rare and beautiful designs. A few persons of ordinary sense and intelligence, ignorant perhaps of the principles on which the machinery operates, and inappreciative of the value and beauty of the fabric they produce, superintend and guide the whole. They use the genius of the *inventor*, not their own. There are methods, therefore, by which many persons may successfully use the genius of one, far from his presence and influence.

Methods of teaching, to be of any practical value, must be similarly related to the genius of an inventor and the sense and intelligence of common people. Some one having genius in the art of teaching, must so incarnate his thoughts in a method-organism, that the teacher of commrn ability can make use of them in his daily work, and produce results approaching in excellence those which could be produced by the man of genius himself. In this way, the inventor of the method inspires with his own genius a thousand minds and hearts, and reproduces his beautiful and beneficent designs, through thousand of agents who are endowed with but an ordinary amount of intelligence and practical sense. In this work, and by this means, the personal qualities and capabilities of the teacher become in some sort reanimated and inspired to their fullest development, and highest and freest action—he partakes of the higher nature of genius, and triumphs in its achievements under his own hand.

Methods of this kind should pervade the entire work of the Normal Faculty, and give it such unity and power as will make it a molding influence in every department, and in every recitation. Are we not liable to have too feeble conceptions of the harmony, the beauty, and power of this view of the functions and operations of methods? Do we not hear it said that, if the pupils are thoroughly taught in the various subjects of study, they may be safely left to their own energy and sense to spontaneously adopt right methods of teaching? Are we not sometimes told also, that those who cannot readily construct methods of their own, after being instructed in the subjects, are not fit to teach? If they naturally possess a high order of genius for teaching, as those who so instruct them must possess, they will succeed; but the majority do not possess genius. The facts are, that persons of genius are nearly as scarce among teachers as in other professions.

Is it unfair, therefore, to demand of Normal Schools that they will educate their pupils in such methods as are adapted to make of them far better teachers than they would otherwise be, and to train them so that they can use these methods with certainty and ease? If they do not accomplish as much as this, they have no business to live. The people do not want them. They are no better than Academies and Colleges—simply doing the same work, and in the same way.

The idea that thoroughly teaching the subjects of school study to Normal pupils, is all that is necessary to constitute trained teachers, excites only amazement. It appears incredible that persons employed to do this special work should mistake the means for the end; should suppose that so much Grammar, Mathematics, Philosophy, &c., represent so much cultivation. This is a world of action as well as of knowledge; and the history of progress should be sufficient to correct such an error. However important a knowledge of such subjects may be in after-life, or however useful they may be, when properly used, as instruments for developing and cultivating the mind, the moment they are mistaken for the *end* of effort, and practically treated as such, education, in any proper sense, ceases to exist, and the growth of the mind is arrested. To acquire power to investigate and discover; power to compare, judge, reason, and act; power to *do* what reason and conscience tell us is right and ought to be done; power to set forth clearly and impressively ones own views, and to convince and persuade others to the right, this is to be educated.

With this object distinctly and always present in the minds and hearts of both teacher and pupil, how different their feelings and manner towards each other! How different the estimate which each makes of the other's labor and effort! This complete subordination of the subject taught to a much higher and more impressive end, makes a more perfect mastery of the subject more easy and certain. In addition to this, it accomplishes early in the child's short life, and maintains throughout the whole course, a result most ardently desired by every zealous teacher and often vainly sought—it places the teacher and the scholar on *the same side of every question*. The wall of opposition raised between them and cemented and strengthened by so many ages of mutual distrust and tyranny, and which even now disfigures so much, even in our High Schools and Colleges, soon begins to crumble and dissolve under the influence of *right methods*, applied by a loving hand.

The "Place" of Methods in a Normal Course, is where the pupil has acquired sufficient knowledge of the nature of the instruments he is to handle, in teaching the young idea how to grow and strengthen. The boy must know the parts of a jack knife, their design and their relations to each other, before he is ready to enter upon learning how to use it The lady must know the nature and relations of several important parts of a sewing machine, before she is prepared to learn how to work with it.

So, also, must one know the nature and relations of the parts of Grammar or Philosophy to each other, and to the work which they used to accomplish, before he is properly prepared to learn how to use them as instruments of mental development.

With passably comprehensive views on the nature of Method, there is no need of proving that one whole term of twenty weeks, spent in the study of Elementary Methods and the philosophy on which they are based, is too little rather than too much time. When we add to this School Economy, School Law, and Criticism lessons, the term's work is crowded. Altogether, it is a term's work more severe and more trying to the endurance of the pupils, than any other term's work in the course. Concerning the value of this term's work in our own school, as a developing agent, the testimony is decided and full. During no other term is the mental and moral development of the class so rapid and so satisfactory. A new phase of life and action shows itself. They rapidly rise to a higher plane; see the nature of their work and the issues of life, in a new and brighter light; feel their own relations to their kind in such a way as to make them, in a marked degree, less selfish, more serious, more earnest, more gentle and loving. No other work in the school fits them so well for the common duties and responsibilities of life.

The methods of teaching the higher branches should receive as much attention and time as those of the lower. A few of the more able pupils can apply the elementary principles and methods to the higher branches, without serious difficulty; but the younger members of the class, and the less talented, need extended assistance. Our experience in Fredonia is, that, unless the class work in methods be extended over a very considerable part of the subjects, the greater number of the pupils are liable, for a long time, to serious embarrassments and many mistakes in their practice. Had they made their entire preparation with us, instead of in schools conducted on a very different plan, these results might have been different. As it is, we find it better for the pupil to make these mistakes in our own practising schools, under the eyes of a competent and faithful critic, than in a school where these aids can not be had.

As to the "Limitation" of methods, in a Normal course, there is manifestly a *right* way of doing every thing. It is equally manifest that the right way is most likely to be followed only by those of superior attainments and skill. The principles which underlie right methods, are common to all subjects. A philosophy of methods can not be right which applies to only some subjects and to only some stages of mental and moral development. If sound and comprehensive, it will apply to every instrument employed in mental and moral culture; to every subject in the whole range of human thought, feeling and action; to every condition of either mind or body, whether infantile or adult, precocious or idiotic; and to every teacher, whether he be possessed of genius or only of common-sense, and whether he be a schoolmaster, a professor, a lawyer, or a minister.

The methods represented in this paper, have been put into successful operation in numerous schools of all grades; in schools for the instruction of the blind and deaf and dumb; in schools for idiots; in Normal schools, proverbially containing a larger proportion of earnest, industrious, and able-minded and able-bodied students, than any other institutions in the land, and in Sunday schools and Bible classes, and in pulpits and lecture rooms as well. In all cases their superiority is marked. Methods which triumphantly come out of such tests can not be built upon a wrong foundation. They may be only imperfectly constructed; they may need much readjusting and improving; but the general plan must be right.

The conclusion is inevitable. Methods should be applied to every subject, throughout the whole course of instruction, in all schools, colleges and universities. They should, like gravitation, be all-pervading and illimitable. Nothing is so small as not to feel their action, nothing so great as not to yield to their power.

The discussion which followed the reading of the paper was participated in by Messrs. BEARD, of Missouri, SANGSTER, of Ontario, GILCHRIST, of West Virginia, S. R. THOMPSON, of Nebraska, PHELPS, of Minnesota, NEWELL, of Indiana, and Miss BRACKETT, of Missouri.

Prof. Beard concurred in the sentiments of the paper, and called particular attention to that feature of it which recommended the teaching of methods for the higher as well as for the primary branches.

Mr. Sangster believed normal schools would never reach their true end, until they could devote their time exclusively to the discussion and illustration of methods and principles of education. Grammar and high schools should give the requisite scholastic instruction.

Mr. Beard thought it not possible at present for the lower schools to give the necessary scholastic training, and that normal schools must do it.

Mr. Gilchrist maintained that every normal school should have a distinct method of teaching each branch of science. A normal school that has not a method of its own will rise to but little usefulness. Genius will display itself, if it exist, and will take its own course. A normal school should not suppress genius as it appears among the members of the school. Individuality should be encouraged. Pupils should study well the methods presented, and then evolve such for themselves as they deem proper or expedient. The conditions attending previous acquirements should have much to do in determining the proper method to be used.

Mr. Thompson. Methods should be taught during class work and should extend throughout the entire normal course; at least one such exercise daily should be had in connection with the subjects being pursued. The distinctive office of the normal school is that it should teach the philosophy of methods.

Miss Brackett. A distinction should be made between the two things which this paper discusses, principles and methods. A principle is the truth itself, a method is the same truth appearing in the light of the surrounding circumstances. There is no danger in teaching principles. They are "seed-corn," and will grow; but methods should be taught with great caution. They are "baked bread" and have no life of their own. The longer I teach, the more sparingly I teach methods as such. Their tendency is to make routine teachers. It will make very little difference what we teach those who have a decided genius for teaching. They will make their mark under any circumstances; but the majority of our pupils are not geniuses, and there is danger in teaching methods to such.

Prof. W. F. Phelps, Principal of State Normal School, Winona, Minnesota. The true office of a normal or training school for teachers is to impart professional, rather than general instruction; to make good teachers rather than profound scholars. Were the condition of education in this country such as to warrant it, our normal schools should require the right standard of scholarship as a pre-requisite to admission, and thus be able to devote their entire strength to the professional training of their students. But under existing circumstances, this is impossible. Our schools for general education have not yet succeeded in producing a supply of scholars even in the elementary branches of knowledge, sufficient to furnish our training schools with the material out of which able teachers can be made. The leading defect in American education is that of *superficiality in the common or elementary branches* of instruction, so called. This stubborn fact has confronted this Normal school movement from its very inception in this country. It has been the experience of every State and of every community that has ventured upon the "Normal Experiment." Indeed, it is this deficiency so keenly felt that has contributed largely to the establishment and rapid growth of the normal school system in our country; a growth unexampled in the history of any other class of professional institutions whatever. In less than a generation, the number of normal schools in the United States alone has increased from one to nearly sixty; and a large proportion of them has been established within the past five years. This wonderful development in the face of the fact of many gross imperfections in them, is proof positive of their singular adaptation to the public wants in spite of these imperfections. By their fruits they have been judged and have become known. Hence they are to be recognized in the future as the great motive power in popular education. It may be assumed as an axiom that *to elevate the schools and the people of a country, we must begin by elevating their teachers.*

But in these early stages of this great reform the normals chools must adapt themselves to the necessities of the schools which they would elevate; they must go down to the teachers, take them gently by the hand and raise them up to a higher plane of literary and professional excellence. Academic or general instruction is, therefore, to a certain extent indispensable in our normal schools. The first step toward becoming a good teacher, is to become an exact and thorough scholar. As this thorough elementary scholarship is not secured to a sufficient extent outside of the normal schools, they must supply the deficiency as far as their own pupils are concerned, and then make this scholarship the basis of as liberal a course of professional training as circumstances will allow. This deficiency in scholarship is not an unmixed evil; for *one of the best methods of teaching how to teach, is by the example of the skillful instructor in the class-room.* So, if the normal school could teach the art of teaching only by the force of examples which approach the best models, they would abundantly justify their cost and their separate organization.

But fortunately for them and for the cause of educational reform, they need not be, and they are not thus limited in their scope. They can do, and they actually perform a great amount of strictly professional work, as such. Principles and methods engage a large share of attention, both in connection with and independently of the thorough academic instruction. I say *principles* and methods; for methods without their underlying principles, are little less than temporary, and, perhaps I may say, mechanical expedients. Every method in education must have the inspiration of the principles,—the undying principles, which are at its foundation, in order to produce its legitimate results.

Methods, in professional instruction, should be used and referred to as illustrations of principles. And in this view of the subject, there is scarcely any limit to which instruction in methods may not be carried in a normal school. The aim should be to realize the maxim: "The minimum of academic, and the maximum of professional teaching, is the true policy of the Training school for teachers."

The amount of this special instruction should be limited only by the necessities of the academic instruction required in any given case. In my judgment, Mr. President, the more of the former, and the less of the latter which any normal school can accomplish, the more fully does it fullfil its true design. Education is largely an experimental science. Experience is the path of true discovery. Upon that must we mainly depend for real progress in the knowledge of principles and methods. And to these Normal schools must we look to lead us ultimately to the goal of perfect success in this great work.

The speaker then detailed the various means employed in the normal school of Minnesota for promoting professional training. These plans may be thus summarily stated:

I. By the example and precept of the teacher in the class-room, while engaged in the work of general teaching.

II. By special teaching and criticism; lessons given daily before the whole school in which every student is required to take part, either as actual teacher, or as observer and critic.

III. By observations in model schools of various grades, with subsequent critical discussion of the notes taken of such observations.

IV. By the preparation of sketches of lessons in various grades, comprehending both subject-matter and method.

V. By a careful study of the principles of school organization, government and management.

VI. By weekly institute exercises in which all take part.

VII. By professional reading of current educational literature, history, etc.

Mr. Rounds. It is possible to assume too much for methods. Every normal teacher should have a method of his own which can be readily understood by his class. It would be well if normal schools could devote all of their time to the discussion of principles and methods, but in States where normal schools have been in operation twenty years, such schools have still to do scholastic teaching, and it will probably always be the case.

Mr. Newell. If there be a fallacy in the paper, it is embraced in the single sentence "There is a right method." Now there are no two teachers exactly right, nor no two students, nor no two schools. If this is true, what we are to seek is *the* right method.

One great difficulty in our schools is that we have too much method. They are too mechanical. Teachers need more confidence in their own opinions and plans. Variety is absolutely necessary to success.

If I was sure I had *the best* method of teaching any subject, I would change it in six months.

Even metaphysics is but an experimental science; and education, which is but an outgrowth of metaphysics, must of course be experimental.

The Committee, on Election of Officers for the Normal section for the ensuing year reported as follows:

President, C. C. ROUNDS, of Maine.
Vice-President, ANNA C. BRACKETT, of Missouri.
Secretary, NATHAN NEWBY, of Indiana.

The report was accepted and adopted.

On motion the President declared the Normal section of the National Association adjourned *sine die*.

Department of Higher Instruction.

ADDRESSES AND JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS

AT THE

SESSION HELD IN ST. LOUIS

August 22, 23, 24, 1871.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

The Department of Higher Instruction, at its preliminary meeting in the forenoon of August 22, in the absence of its President, Dr. ELIOT, of Harvard University, organized by calling to the chair President ELI T. TAPPAN, of Kenyon College, Ohio, and after announcing the order of exercises prepared by its Executive Committe, adjourned to 2½ P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Section met according to adjournment.

Prof. H. K. Edson, Principal of Denmark Academy, Iowa, presented a paper on "Classical Study, and the Means of Securing it in the West."

CLASSICAL STUDY, AND THE MEANS OF SECURING IT IN THE WEST.

It has been well said, that each generation must test and accept truth for itself. History repeats itself, and the conflicts of all ages are essentially identical. There is gain on the whole, but only in the exact sciences are the discoveries and conclusions of one generation made the premises of the next.

In the empire of *Mind*, and with reference to the *studies* best suited to develop its faculties, men have been content to rest only upon the results of the discoveries and experience of their own lives and times. We are passing through, if not entirely over, one of the periodic agitations of a question which seems incapable of a final adjustment, and it is not too much to affirm (claim) that after a thorough canvass of the merits and demerits of the classes, for years, in leading papers and educational journals, and, indeed, through all classes of society the *verdict* is rendered substantially *for* classical study. This appears in the modified tone of the opposition, and from the advanced position taken in many of the leading institutions of the country. A fresh impulse is given to classical studies, requiring in some seminaries an additional year to meet the demands. In some quarters, as in the University of Iowa, there is an entire reversal of the choices of students, and in the currents of feeling. Where, five and even three years ago, few looked at a Greek or Latin book, now a large majority are upon the Classical Course, and vain regrets fill the mouths of those who, on the completion of their University course, realize, too late, the extent of their loss in entering upon a professional life without the advantage of classical training. The testimony and experience of the Universities of Chicago and Michigan are equally decisive, showing that both in educational and financial value, the classics are held to be superior instruments of culture. So the Vassar College at Poughkeepsie. Says a writer in *Scribner's*, for August: "The most thorough and advanced fruit of German University training is brought to bear upon Vassar students by the Professor of Ancient Languages. Three of his five lady assistants, instructing constantly in Latin, demonstrate the truth that, in this College, it is honestly believed and fairly acted upon that, for the purposes of the best education, no means of disciplinary preparation has yet been discovered so effective as the study of the Ancient Languages." Numerous similar examples might be cited from all parts of the country, evincing a higher estimate than ever of the classics, in circles distinguished for advanced thinking; and it is highly significant that while the most earnest and yet judicious friends of the "new education" have distinctly taken the position that, for the purposes of discipline and culture, the study of the French and the German classics, and the study of Physics or History, are as efficient as the study of Greek and Latin, they have, as yet, shrunk from the charge of wholly abandoning or depreciating the study of the ancient languages.

Now, we do not propose to discuss before this body the hackneyed subject of classical study. The arguments, *pro* and *con*, are all in, and the verdict is made up for us and our time; and, like the decision of Gettysburg, or Sedan and Paris, will affect the thinking of the next generation.

The utility and necessity of classical study being generally conceded, then, the question of immense practical importance before us is, by what means shall we best secure attention to them, and promote their general introduction especially in the West. If the conviction could become general among the people that the study of the Ancient Classics is *practical, i.e.*, will *pay* as well as the study of Book-keeping, or Telegraphy, and the Chemical Analysis of Soils, the road to its speedy introduction would be short and well-thronged. But golden sands do not always sparkle in classic paths, nor are rich-paying leads at once revealed to the delver for Greek roots; although at last, when the ultimate analysis of life and labor is reached, to use a California phrase, classic diggings "*pan out*" well.

But, in the absence of this general conviction and in the presence of some prejudice against what is called a *dead* study, and with the general apathy towards all the more recondite studies, we must make the most of whatever past experience suggests and present exigencies demand.

If we take for consideration the usual and very natural division of education into the three grades, *Primary*, *Secondary*, and *Higher*, we find a deficiency in the supply of institutions for the second *grade*. This deficiency is especially marked throughout the *West*, and has had a most deleterious and depressing influence upon colleges. The State, has in general, made ample and wise provision for the first of these divisions. Public funds are applied for the second grade in *cities* and in the larger towns, to carry forward the greatly diminished numbers who have leisure or inclination for the higher English studies, and to give to the still smaller class who desire to fit for college, the requisite instruction in Latin and Greek. But by increasing numbers it is regarded as questionable whether the public should be taxed at all for what has as yet been, and is likely, for a long time to come, to be but class education. The education of the few at the expense of the many is not after the genius of American institutions. So that even this source of supply for colleges, were it at all effective, is likely to be cut off.

For the third class, that occupied by our higher institutions, the State makes provision only in exceptional cases. It leaves the supply to the people.

The American college is peculiarly the fruit and crowning glory of our voluntary system. Indigenous to this country, and springing up among the first colonists upon the Atlantic coast, she has kept pace with civilization across the continent, until at length she sits as a guardian upon the eminence overlooking the Golden Gate, and sheds light upon the far-off Pacific Isles. The position and work of the College, upon the Atlantic slope, was well defined. The Latin and Greek languages were well understood to be the forming-powers and training agencies in the scholarships they produced. Whatever power of mental excitement and uplifting and preparation for public speaking and writing they had for such men as CHOATE and WEBSTER, and the ADAMSES and others, who were leaders in American thought and history they ascribed chiefly to the old classic masters. For those colleges there were found to be needed distinct and separate schools of preparation. These schools were established and maintained by private funds. The academy of New England grew out of the colleges and the people alike. The first school laws of Massachusetts provided for intermediate or higher preparatory schools. But as HORACE MANN assures us, the Fathers, in their inexperience, planned more bravely than they were able to build, and this portion of the school law has in the main been a dead letter. As ever is the case in a new country, there were forests to clear away, homes to rear, roads and bridges to make, and a thousand other demands upon the muscle and means of the young men, and a few only could be spared for college. It was found impossible in a sparse population and among scattered communities for the State to maintain classical schools to fit youth for college. To save the colleges and professional institutions from sinking to the work of the secondary grade, benevolent individuals supplied the means which the wants of society and the prolonged existence of the colleges demanded. These intermediate schools have been the glory and salvation of New England. The colleges have ever leaned upon them—been fed by them. From them have come the leaders in thought and action, the solid men of the Republic scattered among the people; they are nearer their hearts and purses than the colleges of which they are the natural and indispensable feeders, and for which they enlist the youth, and train and secure the public sympathies. This chapter of our history has a world of light for us at the West, and happy had it been for us and our colleges, if the pioneers in our educational work throughout the West had heeded it. We have laid for our educational edifices a broad foundation in our common schools, we have reared in our numerous so-called colleges and universities a promising and pretentious third story. But with no *second* story, these institutions, if distinguishable at all above the common level, have rarely risen above a respectable second grade. Like ambitious and foolish young students, we have attended to the higher branches first, have prized *names* above *things*. A college or university has been put as a kind of glittering figure-head in the midst of almost every colony to attract attention and trade. All this is confessedly wrong, and the remedy is now widely saught. As signs of good, and action in the right direction we note that some institutions have already changed their names from university to "*Collegiate Institute*," and they might have merited the honor which comes from the graces of truth and humility, had they gone still farther and said "*Academy*," a name to which really some of them are scarcely entitled. A young student, a member of one of these third-story, balloon institutions in Illinois recently wrote us, thus: "Our *University* is prospering finely, and is making rapid progress towards a first-class *College*." If all our universities should prosper finely till they reached the grade of a first-class *Academy*, the remedy would be found for our existing evils, and our colleges would be safe.

Above the common education which the State provides for all its children alike, our history and experience prove the necessity of special schools, established and sustained by those who need them. It is unjust and unequal to tax all for these. Few, comparatively, in our new country, will seek the higher and special culture they give. The attempt to keep up, by the State, schools to prepare youth for the college proper, has in fact proved futile. And if our colleges still look in this direction for supplies, they will inevitably continue to languish. Inquiry into the facts shows that our high schools (with *very* few exceptions) are utterly insufficient for college purposes. Sometimes their principals can teach neither Latin nor Greek. Sometimes the directors rule out these studies—and, generally, both directors and principals propose no other end than the higher, home education of their children. The college is not held up as desirable, beyond their curriculum. And further, it is almost impossible in high schools as they yet exist in our newer states, to carry on classes in Greek and Latin till they are fitted for college proper—for lack of interest. These things we say, not from an ill will to the public school system but because *facts* as they have fallen under our observation compel the statement as bearing upon our subject. And we are compelled to say, if we would have first-class colleges in the West, we must have first-class preparatory institutions. There is no collision of interests, between the academy and the public school. The latter has not held, and, as we believe, cannot properly occupy the place of the academy. That it *has* not held it results from the nature of our institutions, and the genius and circumstances of our people. The college, as it has been in New England for two centuries, could not have been had it depended for its supplies of students, upon the schools of the secondary grade as established by the State. It never has drawn its supplies from them, and does not look to them to-day. College officers throughout the land are well nigh unanimous upon this point. Says one, "The college cannot be moderately improved unless there are academies for thorough drill." Says another, "Our chief want is academies." Another, "The college cannot both lay the foundation and erect the superstructure." Another "Neither the college nor the university can depend upon the high schools. Another "Our graded schools are scarcely doing anything in Greek." Another, "None ever entered the University of Iowa fitted in Greek at the high school."

Such testimony is furnished from all denominations and in all states alike; and uttered, not in hostility to our public system of education, but in evidence that it is not the province of our high schools to be feeders of the college. It is not the genius of our institutions to bestow at public cost, the special preparation required to fit for the college. We cannot say it will not be otherwise a century since, after a dense population shall have spread over the land, and wealth shall give power to gratify tastes for general learning. But we must act in view of our wants to-day. We have lost a generation already in the West, by our blind adherence to mere impracticable theory. "It is absurd," says Hon. N. Bateman, "and must be for a long time to come, to expect the State to do more than the elementary work in education—the academy and college *must* do the rest." The prime necessity of academies is admitted then, by every college officer and leading educator in the land. The difficulty *hitherto*, in establishing them has lain greatly in the feeling entertained pretty generally, that academies interfere with public school interests. They are *aristocratic* nurseries, say some,—*aristocratic* we reply, only in that rich men endow them, and poor men's sons reap their benefits. It is a sufficient answer to *all* objections, that the college stands or falls with the academy, and without the academy the college in name is but an academy in reality.

Our colleges must have feeders or die. To keep up the succession of the race of scholars in the West, we must *use* the means that have been tested and proven successful East of the Alleghanies. Western colleges have as yet maintained but a sickly existence, for the want of preparatory schools—founded especially to fit young men or young women for college. A generation has been lost in the costly experiment to get on without them. Beautiful theories of a perfect school system have been tried, and failed out-and-out. Like the theories of free trade and peace, they look well on paper, but, for the matter-of-fact scattered life of the West as it is to-day, they fail in application. Let high schools exist and flourish, if they will, in the few larger places. But elsewhere over the country at large, let all institutions above the primary grade, spring up upon the voluntary system, at whatever centers public sympathies shall crystallize. The influences to direct, and control, and inspire these movements, should come down from the college and up from the people. They are a necessity alike to both people and college. Such impulses as founded Phillips' Academy, and Exeter, and Kimball Union, and hosts of similar enterprises, lifted to a higher eminence the neighboring colleges, and blessed succeeding generations.

It is a hopeful sign, that a new and deep interest is now awakened upon this subject, from Maine to California. Through the several religious bodies, there is a movement to remedy existing evils, and supply deficiencies in means of preparatory culture. Associations, Conferences, and Presbyteries, have appointed committees to inquire into the expediency of establishing academies. These bodies that have founded, officered and endowed colleges, will, under the voluntary system, inaugurate and carry through the *Preparatory* Schools which the times require. In the true-hearted sympathies and intelligent action of these masses, properly directed, lies our strength as to the special educational institutions needed. Let them see that these pillars of our own State, these light-houses of progress and religion, the colleges, *need* academies as feeders, and the means will not be wanting. When the people see that the academy is not the enemy of the public school system, but is of the same nature as the college, and should exist for the same reasons, they will "conquer their prejudices," and build these needful institutions. Here would seem to be the field, for the first earnest work of educators, to remove prejudices—to enlighten public sentiment—and show the imperative importance of preparatory classical schools. The State, through the normal and training schools, prepares the teacher for his work in the *Primary* school. The want of similar facilities for the training of *classical* teachers for our preparatory schools, has been a serious hindrance to the prosperity of our colleges,—has been one of the chief difficulties in realizing the best results of classical training. To supply these facilities—to establish schools that shall in the rural districts enlist the youth, and initiate them in a course of classical study, we regard as the immediate, pressing want of our time. Direct efforts should be made in favorable localities for the establishment of independent training schools for classical teachers, or to form departments in connection with existing schools, sufficiently ample to fit youth for college. The benefit of such training would soon be evident, and the clamor against the study of the languages would cease.

Our hope of ultimate success in this movement rests upon our confidence in the goodness and vital importance of the cause, and our faith in the people, who, when well informed, are ever true to their best interests. Let EDUCATORS unite in demanding schools wherein class studies shall not be forced upon all, and where the class system shall not hold *exclusive* sway, but schools where it shall be combined with the modern system, and where any that shall desire to pass from this upper kind of secondary to the higher education in college, shall be fitted to go, and the means and opportunities for such schools will not be wanting.

Principal S. G. Williams, Cleveland Central High School, Ohio, in opening the discussion on the paper, gave some outline of the academic system in the State of New York with which he had been connected many years, and said that the number of pupils that they prepared bear but a small ratio to the number and whom they instructed. He thought that, aside from the public high schools of the larger cities, the colleges must for the present, look for their supply of students, to private classical academies established temporarily to do this kind of work; and said that he could see no just antagonism between these schools, if properly conducted, and the public school system.

President I. P. Gulliver, of Knox College, Illinois, made the following remarks:

I think, sir, that in the discussion of this subject, we should take special pains to dismiss from our minds any thought of an actual or a possible rivalry between the college system, with its adjuncts, as it is established in this country, and the public school system. There is no such rivalry, and the suspicion or suggestion of its actual existence or of its remote possibility, can only work injury. Some of us here, who are specially connected with college education, have passed through long years of toil and even of sharp conflict, in the cause of common and high school education; and we are not likely to forget the principles we have so earnestly contended for.

On the other hand, those who are identified with public school education are, many of them, graduates of our colleges; and they are not likely to become hostile to a system of education to which they are always ready to ascribe their own success.

Now if we can become fully possessed of this sentiment concerning the essential unity of these two systems, we need have no difficulty in deciding this question of preparatory schools. If we admit that the two systems have distinct parts to perform in the one work of educating a Christian Democracy, then we shall not be disposed to deny to either whatever it needs for the efficient performance of its part in the work. If, for example, we are all ready to adopt the received theory on this subject, the theory upon which, thus far, the educational system of the country has been conducted, viz, that it is the business of the college to educate the leaders in society, and of the public schools to educate the citizen, and if we keep these two systems, strictly, each to its special work, then we must all say that private preparatory schools are as necessary to colleges, as public primary schools are to high schools. The two systems will, in that case, be used to aid each other. They will communicate at certain points, and the vitality of one will, in a degree, be transmitted to the other, as when the preparatory school receives its pupils, trained in English studies, from the public schools, and as when the college, in town, sends its trained graduates back to become teachers in the public schools. But as systems, they will be distinct, with distinct means and appliances, so long as their objects are distinct.

But the difficulty in the case is, that these hitherto commonly received ideas in regard to the distinct aims of the two systems, are not the ideas of many of the most intelligent and enterprising of our public school men. They have the conviction, and they are doing their best to promulgate it among the people, that the State, as in Prussia, should undertake to educate both the ordinary citizen and the highly cultured few, both the rank and file and the officers in society. With this idea they have sought to push high schools into the higher scientific and classical work, where but few pupils have time or inclination to follow them; they have advocated the establishment of State Universities, upon the same non-religious basis as that of the public school system; and now, following the same thought, it is proposed that the whole nation shall unite in establishing a national university, from which all distinctive forms of religious opinion shall be excluded, so that its instruction shall be acceptable not only to all denominations of Christians, whether evangelical or nominal, but to those who avowedly "stand outside of Christianity," to infidels, rationalists, Jews, Atheists, and if the "Heathen Chinee" multiply in the land, to heathen also.

Now it would not be relevant to this discussion to express any opinion concerning the comparative merits or demerits of these views. They involve great principles which cannot be grasped without much candid and patient thought. It is emphatically a question with two sides, and should be treated as such bv all parties.

Our only point now is that those who hold these views and cherish these aspirations cannot look with very favorable eyes upon an effort to strengthen a system so unlike the one they long to see established. It is natural for them to reply to us college men, when we propose the establishment of private or endowed academies, "Why not make the high school your academies? The same effort which will be required to establish your academy, would give you in the public school all you want."

Now we might reply to this, if we happened to entertain the opposite view already described, "We do not want to see the high schools attempt anything more than to give the amount of education which is necessary to train the average citizen, for the successful discharge of the practical duties of life. We do not approve of using the public funds, raised by taxation, from the whole body of the citizens, for the education of professional men and eminent scholars. That work belongs to individuals and religious denominations. In this country they have always done it, and they have done it well. Nobody has had any cause to complain, least of all, could any one accuse the colleges of any *undue* religious influence! Let well enough alone."

I say, some, holding that the State has nothing to do with this higher education, would make this reply to those holding the other extreme view, that the State should have the whole charge of the higher education.

But the great majority of college men will reject both these theories as equally extreme and unwise.

We plant ourselves simply upon the *facts* of the case. We say that for *some* reason, we will not now undertake to say what, the public high schools, even when they have had their fullest and freest development have failed, and are failing, and we fear will continue to fail, to give to the colleges that steady support which they must have, in the way both of students and scholarship, if they are to be anything but a miserable sham and pretence. Now when we say this, let us be understood as acknowledging a great indebtedness to the high schools. All we claim is that the support they give us is *unequal*, both in quantity and quality; that if the colleges had no other source of supply, they would often, without any fault of their own, find themselves deficient in numbers; that they would be compelled to fill their classes by lowering the terms of admission, or by increasing those "optional courses," which, in their present excessive multiplication in the early stages of education, are the curse of our higher institutions.

Look at the colleges of New England. What would they be to-day, if they had depended for the supply of students, solely upon the high schools? Those schools have, on the whole, furnished many excellent scholars. But, with a few marked exceptions, none of them have escaped the vacillations incident to changes of administration and of aim, attendant upon popular elections, and the interests of struggling political parties. The colleges have been able to control them more or less, because the steady supply of well-drilled students, has constantly come to them from the academies. But if it had not been for this supply the whole college system would have been subject to constant mutations and perturbations. Ask any New England college president, upon what he relies as the basis of his efforts to advance the standard of scholarship in his institution, and he will not point you to the high schools, unless you call the Latin school of Boston a High School, which it is not, but he will point you to Exeter, Andover, Easthampton, Monson, Hartford, New Haven, Norwich and other private or endowed academies.

I need not say that all this is more emphatically true of the colleges of the West. I will not now dwell upon the well known facts of the case. But you must not wonder if, in view of those facts, we college men insist that we must have, to *supplement* our public high schools, other schools, which shall make it their express object to instruct the surrounding community in classical education and to prepare students for college. We believe that the colleges, in their way, are as essential to the welfare of society and of the churches of Christ, as the public schools are, in their way. We can not, therefore, without being recreant to a most sacred trust, fail to proclaim this need and to awaken public attention to it. If we suggest, as we often do, that the various religious denominations take up this enterprise, it is not because we care a straw about their denominational bearing, but because we have in these religious bodies an organization ready to our hand, admirably fitted to the work, long accustomed to do it, and vitally interested in having it done for the perpetuation of their own ministry. But, in *some* way, we say this work of preparation for college must be attended to, as it has not been, thus far, at the West. The progress of our colleges demands it. The very existence of our colleges demands it.

We hail with joy the growing determination of the high school teachers to aid us. We are much pleased with the proposal of the recent convention of Principals at Rockfort, Ill., to give their students a year in advance in Mathematics, if the colleges will admit them without Greek. In Knox College the Trustees have already met that proposition by offering to open an extra class in Greek for all such high school graduates. We will do all we can to make a perfect joint between the high schools and the colleges. All we ask of you is, not to play the dog in the manger by opposing our efforts to get students ourselves, while yet you do not, perhaps can not, furnish them for us. We ask you not to be illiberal and bigoted in the matter. We ask you to give your sanction and encouragement *to both* these methods of supplying our colleges as they may be needed.

Entertaining these sentiments, I offer the following resolution:

RESOLVED, That the convention highly approve the effort now in progress to unite more perfectly the courses of study in the public high schools and the colleges by introducing special classical courses on the part of the schools, and by modifying, without lowering, the require-

ments of admission on the part of the college; and that we also heartily indorse all efforts to supply any temporary or permanent deficiency in the classical instruction furnished in the public schools, or by academies specially devoted to the studies required in preparation for college.

Dr. Reed, President of Missouri University, thought the high schools were rapidly coming up to the work of college preparation, and that their efforts should be aided by cultivating a public sentiment in this direction, rather than retarded by the establishment of private academies.

The discussion was suspended at this point to give place for the presentation of the following paper by General Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, on "Superior Education as Related to Universal Education."

SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION AS RELATED TO UNIVERSAL EDUCATION.

If the mathematician says correctly that the angle of the apex includes every atom contained in the outspreading base and uprising cone, may we not, as educators, fitly say that superior instruction, using the term loosely, meaning by it that imparted in the college, the professional, normal, technological schools as they now exist, crowns and includes in its relations all the education of the human race?

Limiting ourselves to our country, we discuss here our superior instruction as related to the education of all our people. It should be premised that we do not set a fixed value upon education to be uniform in all cases, nor confine it solely to the work of intellectual culture, but allow it to signify, as it does in popular use, all that variety of training and development enjoyed or suffered by the various individuals in the country, however perfect or imperfect that may be.

Every individual makes some progress from his condition at birth; this may be termed his education, whether right or wrong.

We are apt to speak of education as an improvement, we desire that it should be, always; but nature has a law in man's being that allows no standing still, and if there is not betterment there is growing worse, and if we predicate education of the latter, it must be progress in evil.

The parent savage is more a savage than his child at birth. Indeed, infancy, alike in christian civilization and in barbarism, has much in common, the departure is chiefly education. No individual soul can be an exception; all are bound by it, all illustrate it. Every child born among us will have some education in good or evil. Adults must say which it shall be, and determine its agencies. Contemplate our nation; a certain number alive in 1860 had received instruction in colleges, professional, normal, and technological schools. Our discussion comprehends the relation of the instruction they received to their education and to the education of all the other people at that date.

Such a statement involves a distinction between the instruction imparted by the professor and the benefit derived from it by the student. We would allow the term education to signify just what the rearing, the development of the individual is, whether greater or less.

We must pass the relation of superior instruction to those who receive it directly with but a word. Very few of them gather its full import. Too often it is addressed only to the bright scholars, as if brilliant intellectual action alone was sought without regard to attendant evils, or the good of the mass of students. We are reminded of the conversation said to have occurred between

Sir Astley Cooper and the Surgeon-in-chief of the French Empire, who asked him how often he had performed a certain wonderful feat of surgery. "Thirteen times," he replied. "Ah, but, Monsieur, I have done him one hundred and sixty times." "How many times did you save his life?" continued the Frenchman, after he had looked into the blank amazement of Sir Astley's face. "I," said the Englishman, "saved eleven out of thirteen. How many did you save out of one hundred and sixty?" "Ah, Monsieur, I lose dem all; but de operation was very brilliant."

The superior instruction that is lost in these brilliant but fatal experiments is without power to rouse the greater number of students. They gather certain good from the tuition of their associates, certain undefined effects from the atmosphere of this instruction; but for their great awaking they have to wait till Providence brings them into the work of life.

Besides there is a tendency to confine this instruction to the letters of education and to address it to the literature of thought, not to the use of it, the weaving of knowledge into the warp and woof of life. All the attainments it sometimes requires may be made by a capacity to perceive, remember and express, functions of mind that may go on in a condition of insanity, or of vice and crime. This kind of acquisition has been mis-named education, and pointed out as that to be sought after by the young. This bookishness, this parrot-culture, never should satisfy the superior instructor. His instruction should be the best for the best development of all the excellencies possible of body, mind and character of every one that comes under his influence. No limitation to a few, or a faculty, or class of faculties will suffice.

In visiting some of our colleges and observing their bad architecture, the filthiness of halls and recitation rooms, the disregard of the conditions of health, or the barbarous customs prevalent among the students, one would almost come to the conclusion that these, and the like offenses against nature and good sense, were esssential concomitants of their instruction.

Again, the duties of educated men, so often, so elegantly portrayed, it should be noted as we pass, are not the subject of this discussion. Indeed, superior instruction from the living teacher is not essential to learning. Providence has other ways of producing learned men and women. Indeed the whole work of life may be greatly, nobly done, and the college or lecture-room never entered. These are only aids, shorter methods, substitutes for the longer, more tedious and more uncertain way of attainment without formal instruction. However we exalt the import of this instruction we must not set it down as indispensable in every case. Trees will grow wild, but pruned and grafted yield better fruit. Mind may be great in science without formal instruction, but with instruction it becomes scientific better and more easily.

Remembering these things, we choose to confine our remarks to a subject more limited, even, than the duties of educated men in reference to universal culture; to a responsibility back of this, without dwelling on the obligations of the taught in reference to it, save as these are included in the instruction imparted to them and merged in those of the instructor. For students of this grade are powerful for the success or failure of the professor's endeavors and are to be held in joint responsibility with him. Men set themselves apart to give this superior instruction. It is the last formal aid of the teacher to the greatest votary of science, author, statesman, editor, lawyer, clergyman, engineer, teacher. Elementary and secondary instructors have performed their part, the one has planted the seed, bent the twig, the other has continued and extended the work. Here, in the superior department, to use another figure, the steel is tempered and polished, and finally set to its uses,—uses that could not be foreseen definitely, when the ore was taken from the mine, nor till in the special separation for its own purpose, its adaptations began to appear in the series of preparatory processes. Whatever the elementary and secondary processes of training may do to give firmness of grain, strength of fibre, purity, compactness, shape, this last imparts finish and sets to use. The student goes directly from this instruction to the work of life. He comes up to it from the level of human ignorance. He starts where all childhood stands, at the base of the cone of human intelligence; he is brought by the steps of instruction forward, until from this he receives his last aid in approaching the apex of human culture. Having closed his special opportunities, he is labelled A. B., Ph. D., M. D., and so forth, and set to do for others.

He is to be a teacher in knowledge and its uses, in brain-work and moral work. However others may come to the same attainments, he is supposed to have come philosophically, to have come with the least possible waste, friction and mistake, to be in the best condition of health, strength, vigor; in a word, of capacity for enduring the conflict. Moved from the innermost depths of his own soul and following the flaming torch of truth, he is to push his way through life. As *Sybel* observes: "Whatever course he may pursue in after-life, whether he be liberal or conservative, reactionary or progressive, orthodox or heretical, whatever, in fact he may be, the essential point is this, that he is whatever he is, not from any mere force of habit, acquired during his youth, not from any indistinct sentiment or traditionary obedience to establised authorities, but from scientific conviction, critical examination, independent self-determination."

In whatever profession he labors, he becomes the example of education; he is pointed out by numbers as showing what it is, and what its benefits; and if he is a failure, he indicates how little the best instruction can avail, if good sense, good purpose and industry are wanting. Thus the work of the professor becomes greater beyond the lecture-room than within it; his students as examples, are before all the members of this great body politic, the public, which as regards education, we have chosen to speak of under the figure of the cone. All others look to them and are affected by them. These students do not make all our books, all our discoveries in art and science, do not edit all our newspapers, make all our bridges, do not enact, adjudge and execute all our laws—by no means; yet they do constitute a sufficient portion of the brain-power, which performs all these functions to shape and determine the character of each, and as their instruction in higher learning determined their characters, so it also is the primary cause in shaping the effects which flow from these great agencies. Superior instruction as the head, the chief formal teaching must be held responsible for all other grades. It informs the teachers of the country, it makes the text-book, it unfolds science and art.

Elevating influences come from above. In the physical world the sunbeam so delicate and silent, is the medium through which the vast changes and material activities on the surface of the earth are effected, and which have so much to do in determining the habits and comforts of mankind. So the human heart expects spiritual good from above. Intellectual improvement is no exception. A Socrates from his sublime height of attainment, radiates his light down the path of the ages to all ranks of men; so much more an association of equally great men or an institution, that shall from generation to generation instruct and polish those great lights of the race. Is it too much to say, therefore, that this instruction, as the highest formal human aid to the young, may fitly be called to account for the condition of all the people of the land as respects intelligence and virtue?

If any section or class is neglected, excluded from letters, or shut up in ignorance, may we not justly hold superior instruction accountable? Either it has not done all its work, or has done it badly. Is there wrong philosophy abroad, are bad methods of teaching practised in secondary and elementary training, shall not superior instruction be held responsible? Do men have a perverted idea of education, or is culture one-sided, is there no progress in science and art, are there no improvements in the industries, may we not call the professors in colleges and professional schools to account?

Is the sentiment abroad that manual labor is dishonorable, that caste in society must be forced upon America, that treason is as honorable as patriotism, that corruption in office is right, that right is wrong and wrong is right, whoever else is *particeps criminis*, is not the college and professional teacher the chief in guilt? Can any excuses avail him? Does not the judgment of mankind say: "Your seclusion may be agreeable, but it is inadmissible. Your instruction should sympathize with all human interests, with all that is right or beneficial in human affairs. That judgment would indeed censure you if you neglected your own special studies, and did not do something to advance them, but it must be remembered, your study of the subscript of the *iota* is for mankind, you triangulate for your country, for every soul in it. Your study is a sacred place, your books are choice companions, but they are all yours only to help you to discharge a duty you owe God and man, and they will fail you, if you do not send out to the remotest and humblest of your countrymen some salutary influence."

Some specifications of the obligations in this relation may be worth our while:

I. Truth, absolute, infinite, eternal truth, in which superior instruction believes, and whose facts, manifestations and relations it seeks to explain, is for all men according to their capacities and responsibilities, and enforces the duty of this instruction to promote universal education. The poorest, humblest and most ignorant as well as the most learned has his relation to truth, a relation of knowledge to all he can know, and of faith to what he cannot comprehend, and of practice to all he can use. Out of these relations grow the bonds that bind men, families, communities, nations in their order, as gravitation guides the heavenly bodies. The pursuit of truth gives virtue to man even though he fall into errors, gives peace to the soul, felicity to the family order to the community growth in civilization to the nation. The responsibility of no man can exactly take the place of that of any other, but all are equally obliged to obey the doctrines of truth according to their capacity, and entitled to a fair opportunity for thi endeavor. One is to discover, another to communicate or apply to the needs of mankind. Truth in its application to common affairs is around all, touches all, comes to all as light and air. No cloister has a right to confine it. One becomes its possessor only to receive the obligation to give it to others.

The British Museum is said to contain among its rare curiosities, a proclamation, issued in 1530, by Henry VIII., "prohibitinge the having of the holy scripture, translated into the vulgar tonges of englisshe, frenche or duche." We must now go towards barbarism to find any sovereign assuming this prerogative. Men of intelligence should know, that the command, "Let there be light!" was not given in vain, and is not to be limited to any class by any human decree or contrivance.

But as these vital elements, light and air, are only so many mysteries to the untutored, so truths the most common must be taken up by the human understanding, expressed in human signs, communicated in human language, shown in their uses, taught by the more intelligent to the more ignorant. The lesson and injunction from all directions is to give wisdom, that you may obtain it:

"The sun gives ever, so the earth,—
* * * * *
The ocean gives in many ways,—
* * * * *
So, too, the air, it gives us breath,—
When it stops giving, comes in death.
Give, give, be always giving;
Who gives not, is not living,
The more you give,
The more you live."

At best the highest instruction can only be partial, limited, picking up a pebble or two on the shore. It should be conscious of this, and always humble, always reverent, never conceited that it knows so much, always learning. True merit, great attainments, are humble and constant in acquisition.

While the conceited young students at Nuremberg (one of them having stolen the manuscript of the great work of COPERNICUS revealing to the world the correct idea of the revolutions of the heavenly bodies) attempted by a mob to prevent its publication, unwilling in their bigotry to examine its facts and propositions,—that profound philosopher was humbly pushing his labors to the last.

II. The sciences, the subjects considered in superior instruction, are for universal benefit.

The diversities and unities of the sciences may suggest the unity and diversity of their benefactions. The diverse relations of men to science exclude none altogether. Should any be so limited in mind, as to be wanting in power to apprehend a truth, immediately science and art are at command for him, they offer aid for his weakness, and set to work to devise means of communicating their blessings to him, as is illustrated by the beautiful labors for those who walk in silence, and those who dwell in darkness. Ingenuity and patience carry their benefits to the idiot. This is the glory of science. Singular that any statement of such a doctrine should be needed.

But not a litttle of the spirit of learning in the middle ages is still extant. Acquisitions are made for pride; the diploma intended to be a sign of merit and the means of its recognition, and of the condemnation of quackery, receives regard more as a mark of honor, and is sought, however empty of the power of which it should be the exponent. It too often is recognized as the means of restricting learning instead of an indication of the obligation to communicate knowledge good in quality and ample in amount.

Science can be confined to no Heligoland, where the most familiar denizens, every dark night, are in danger of stepping off into the sea. The sciences have a *terra firma* for the tread of thought broader than the continent, co-extensive with the universe. Besides, scientists that seek only their own class, do little to enlarge and perpetuate its glory; all breeding-in for them is fatal. The Philip, who runs to tell Nathaniel, brings disciples and the possibilities of new discoveries and other benefits. No class should be less in need of the enforcement of these doctrines than those imparting and those receiving superior instruction.

There is no subject of their pursuit that does not repeat these lessons. Are they natural sciences, how do their analogies array themselves as lights to throw some certain ray on the path here pointed out, indicating the good everywhere prepared by divine wisdom for mankind?

Is it logic or rhetoric, in what were their powers ever better employed, than in proclaiming the word of truth and duty to every creature?

It was the boast of WEBSTER that his first speech was in behalf of free common schools. Thus every science, and every noble use of any power it imparts, seeks dissemination, and like the seeds of the forest, makes wings for the flight to some mind and heart.

III. The obligations of superior instruction to country call upon it to hold out the light of life to every traveler in the land.

The greater the intelligence of any one, the greater the expectation others have of his clearness and correctness of apprehension.

Is the subject patriotism, the learned are expected best to undesrtand its grounds, claims, arguments, and considerations. It would prompt American scholars to excel for the glory of their country, to rejoice in every Thermopylæ when their country demanded their encounter with error. The instruction should be the best not only for the honor it would reflect on our land, but as a means of good to the people. Like instruction, like the character of those taught, we should be able to say: like men of learning, like people of all the land. They must tell how and why the people should be taught and prosecute the work. They must bring to the populace the admonitions of the rise and fall of empires. They must know the exact forces of education, its perversions, and its right uses. Is it invidious to say that America imposes peculiar obligations on superior instruction? Where else has it such freedom, such verge and room for action and effect? Nations elsewhere have been fragments, here a great unit of population presents itself for training and high endeavor. Here the university and college may undisturbed gather their ammunition and train their leaders and armies for the mastery of the world. Moreover, the masses are not arrayed against them.

Obstructed as may be the best sentiments here and there, imperfect as is our learning, as lacking in full realization of our possibilities as may be the functions of national life, a man of most opposite views, were he brought into high position, would be more affected by our institutions and people than they by him. Herein is the glory of what our superior instruction has done, and the pledge that it is to do all that the highest demands can exact. Increase the national life to its full force by the universality of these benefits, and it would assimilate the most stubborn facts and characters. Asia may yet put it to this test. On the whole the aspirations of our people are towards enterprise, acquisition: mind has its weight. Nowhere else has it open to it so many channels offering to all so high rewards to their achievements. No Brahminism here meets it with iron caste, no Buddism with the annihilation of the motives drawn from immortality, opposes it. Many of the forces that in other countries have rendered superior instruction in any just sense impossible, have no foothold on our shores. The course for it here is free, the motives commensurate to the most lofty and enduring efforts—the only perpetual condition being that these benefits must effect an universal education—shall turn the form of truth to every eye, utter every melody for every ear, carry learning everywhere.

Does this superior instruction feel that it has a country, feel a sentiment of home to say, this is my own, my native land? Does it prize the privileges it here enjoys? It must preserve them by cherishing the conditions upon which they depend.

France, with her thirty per cent. of adults unable to read and write, to-day offers a solemn warning against the withholding of education from any portion of the people, however high the culture of the university may be carried, while Germany tells the power of universal education.

Poland, a name calling to so many hearts the saddest emotions, presents a mournful illustration of university culture without reference to the welfare of the lowest and humblest. Her great universities come down from other centuries with a sombre and ancient glory. Their students were aglow with patriotism, and distinguished for their services. Her history in blank verse, set to music by patriotic ladies, was sung by her pupils in the few schools scattered over her plains, and thus gave the inspiration to that heroism which sheds over their struggle for liberty a halo so enchanting to the imagination of the free, so full of scenes appealing to the universal sympathy of mankind; but, alas, the universities were chiefly for the nobles, and these schools only for the few; the masses were not thought worthy of light; even now out of a population of 4,800,000 in Russian Poland, 3,800,000 can not read and write, and Poland is dead. Do not her lost liberty and the blood of her sons cry out against her universities for their neglect of the common people?

IV. The personal moral obligation of each teacher to his fellow leaves no excuse for superior instruction to suffer any child in the land to escape its benefits.

Do the obligations of superior instruction to truth, to the sciences, to patriotism fail, this personal obligation of the teacher to his fellow, the professor can not escape. His intelligence forbids him to ask "who is my neighbor?" he knows the universal brotherhood of man; he knows the moral obligations growing out of it; he knows the folly of trying to escape them; his daily duties tell the story that inspires to accept and fulfil these obligations; ten thousand voices unheard by the ignorant and uncultivated, call him; hands of the great and good beckon him forward; skeleton fingers of the evil warn him against hesitancy and delay, or omission; considerations from which he can not escape surround him and leave him no alternative but to reject his own knowledge of himself and his duty, or go forward in every way to enforce education for all men; his own success depends upon his sympathy with his pupils, nay, upon his sympathy with all conditions of men everywhere, that he may carry forward those under his tuition in those atttainments of character which shall prepare them to work for all classes of persons; all the better for him if, in aid of this purpose, his classes are made up of sudents from the various pursuits and conditions of life. Lord Brougham, who was trained in the High School of Edinburgh, afterwards was in the habit of saying, "I have seen no other plan so efficient," and at an entertainment there, after commending its various merits in training men in classical scholarship, declared as a special reason, "It is because men of highest and lowest rank of society send their children to be educated together."

V. The most selfish motives urge upon superior instruction this duty of aiding and enforcing universal education.

Whatever a selfish superior instruction may think of classes other than its own, to whatever condemnation it may send them, it would swell its own numbers to the greatest limits and have in them men in the different pursuits of the greatest genius. But Providence does not shower the gifts of genius according to any outward conditions of birth, such as wealth or station. American history is teaching that in a society like ours, the Websters, and Clays, and Lincolns, come more from the so-called middle or lower classes, so far as rank by wealth is conderned. Verily riches have a hard chance—their possessor being no more likely to enter heaven with them than a camel to pass through the eye of a needle, and his son, in his foolish use of them, being well nigh excluded from the high personal attainments of this life.

A Canadian writer has well said, "There exists a most serious heresy about superior education. It is utterly wrong to think that universities and higher education are for the higher classes. The European universities were originally established to give education to the poor, not only free but rewarded. If this was the case where ancient distinctions of rank were known, much more should it be where there are no such distinction of station or rights. These higher educational institutes should be territorially and otherwise within easy reach of the poorest. You have not only to make them free, but to give substantial advantages to poor pupils who attend, rather than leave them to the idle sons of the rich. These higher institutions will not take care of themselves any more than the lower. They must be endowed by the rich and helped by the State. What raises the calling of the lawyer or doctor is the great prizes attainable. Such prizes should be open also to teachers. There is a duty incumbent on all of us, to develop a teacher class by every means in our power."

Superior instruction must not suffer itself to draw only and solely from the paying classes. The larger the number prepared for college or professional study, the larger number are likely to enter and graduate. American sentiment does not now demand of every professional man a sound education; hence, in the nature of the case, it is not always obtained; for here as well as in commerce the law of supply and demand is operative. Superior instruction therefore, is interested in creating among all the people a sentiment in favor of sound learning. For this purpose it should draw its students from all classes, that it may present to them all its benefits, and thus secure their support. It is interested in increasing the number of those in elementary and secondary training, that a larger number may be prepared from which to select its votaries. How absurd the position of a college or university, that seeking to supply itself solely by its own preparatory school, enters into a low competition with all others and especially when it opposes the system of public education by the commonwealth which alone assures universal intelligence! We would say encourage its own, build its own indeed, but help all others, and especially befriend the system of education which is intended to start all minds, to bring the inspiration of letters to every soul. How absurd, not to say, how in violation of the spirit of the

Master, is the advocacy by denominations of Christians, of the schools and colleges of their sect in a way to be used against the only great work which is for all and includes all!

Better let each sect build and endow and conduct with all excellencies and success its own institutions, but as its own safeguard, encourage, defend, build up and enrich with all aids that system of public education which shall make every child capable of reading its tenets and so of judging of them for himself, and thus preserve a condition of society where outside of the church, the amenities and securities of virtue will never give place to the degradations and horrors of barbarism. The fortunes of superior instruction are most closely linked with those of the elementary and secondary school.

It is to me an omen of good that there is one organization in the nation for educational purposes. This fact alone, has in it a suggestion to every teacher of his enlarged relations. But it is fraught with still further augury of good, in that it has within its divisions of labor, a place for all departments of instruction. Here is a figure of the blending which their true interests, and the interests of the people require. Let the colleges of the West and South make general, even to the extent it is in the eastern States, the same grade of secondary and elementary instruction, and the sentiment needful to higher learning will not be wanting, which together with the students shall soon demand an enlargement of their walls, while the vast estates so rapidly accumulated there, shall hasten to glorify their possessors by adding their names to the list of the benefactors of Christian learning.

Moreover, the labor required of sound, superior instruction to correct the mistakes, the errors, the bad habits with which students come to it, the poor spelling, the imperfect English, the slip-shod notions of study, the vicious indulgences already fixed, the labor of correcting these on the most selfish principles, would seem to say to it, go to every school, nay, to every family, wherever the habits of the young are formed, and inculcate sound ideas and principles of culture—the professor of the college is as much interested as the teacher of the primary school in testing the merits of the kindergarten.

Does any one inquire how superior instruction may fulfill these obligations, the answer would seem to be at hand. A full statement here is impossible, but some points may be specified.

1st. By harmony between all its departments, no clashing of subjects such as the classical with the natural sciences should be suffered.

The influences of superior instruction are marred and greatly limited by these bickerings. Arms are lifted in fratricidal war that should be arrayed against ignorance, that common foe to all human good. Neither schools of science nor of the classics have any time to spare for such encounter.

How imperfectly both compare with their fellows in Europe! Who would set the university in America over against that in Germany? Here the conditions do not yet exist upon which the success of the university there is assured.

This is not observed for the purpose of conveying the idea that we want the German university here as it is there, but to suggest that we are ready to be assured of the possession of its excellencies, its impulse to the highest scientific and literary pursuits, and its aid to the profession of teaching. These, our people need and have a right to demand of our superior instruction. Instead of contending therefore, every department of this instruction has need to do more and better work, carry its acquisitions higher and further. It is well known that our M. D. is not recognized abroad, and that all our learned degrees suffer there. The apex of our cone should be carried higher. All instruction should be advanced, then we might see greater willingness to diversify and adapt it to the necessities of the people, thus reaching more successfully every atom possessed of the power of thought in this educational cone to its very base. How slowly schools of art are established! Such cities as Pittsburg and St. Louis will import their artisans and skilled mechanics, and we say get all they can, but they should know that a proper modification of the instruction furnished to their own children would fill these cities with native mechanics equally skilful.

What the school could fitly do for every industry would be speedily offered to the sons of toil.

There would be no hesitancy about corresponding modification, either in hours or matter, to the necessities of the working classes; half time schools and those at other hours would render attendance more easy to the children who must so early help parents and themselves to live. Schools of commerce and of forestry and of other pursuits would open, not to take the place of other culture, but to do for these avocations all that special instruction may.

2d. The dissemination of correct ideas of the nature of education, its processes, and objects, its uses and benefits, and of the evils of ignorance to the individual, the family, the church, community and nation, to all persons and property.

This suggestion is so on the surface of our affairs that it would seem too apparent for specification; yet an acquaintance with facts would not suffer it to be passed over. It is to be confessed that you can find among us institutions for instruction in the highest branches of learning, in which teacher and taught are alike unfamiliar with a true idea of education. This is too much to be long tolerated in America. Sometimes the professor seems to deal out the lore of the ancients with little impress of his own thought or that of his own age; as if our baker would bring to our doors the loaves cooked 1700 years ago and now preserved in the museum at Pompeii, satisfied if the article ever was bread even though it be now a stone. If every professor could point to his department of instruction, and say of it, as AGASSIZ of his great work—"my whole thought is wrapped up in that museum,"—no matter what its object, it would assume living relations, and with the organizism given it in the order of truth, raise and hold the enthusiasm of students and the approbation of the public.

But there seems to be prevalent to some extent the idea that collegiate or professional instruction in some way, is not amenable to the usual obligations in this respect. So that the professor is learned in his subject, he is allowed a sort of license in regard to the profession of teaching. This is a sin against himself, his profession, and his students, but a greater one against mankind at large. His work should be so performed as to convey a correct idea of what education is—to illustrate its uses, and to put its results in contrast with those of ignorance and charlatanism. Nor is this enough; superior instruction dealing with all those higher subjects, mental philosophy and political economy in which these processes and effects are involved, should discuss them, take them up, obtain a correct idea of them, and give them a clear statement for the benefit of mankind. The banker tells his percentages. The teacher may learn from him a lesson in enforcing learning upon mankind. Its money gains are to be measured and pointed out. True, they may not be told to a unit for every student, or institution or grade of progress for they indeed convey benefits which cannot be expressed in figures.

But certain facts can be accurately observed, recorded, generalized, and their lesson taught, and learning, study, education have the the benefit; the individual, social, civil advantages, and the vast pecuniary results can be set over against the steps of culture; the effect observed on crime of prudent moral training, in which all consciences in favor of right instead of wrong agree; the better opportunity thus furnished for wealth, for enterprise, for literature, for the special work of the church, nay, for all activities whose success is in harmony with man's improvement, would reflect the pecuniary benefit of such expression of itself by superior instruction upon the college and university. How much this is needed, self-sacrificing instructors in high learning alone can tell. Let wealth see how, like cause and effect, this instruction and its incomes stand related and it will voluntarily or by taxation freely put these professional services up to a proper standard of compensation, but it is not likely to do it when there is apparent hostility between learning and the production of wealth.

It pays the engineer fabulous prices to develop a force in nature, to render active and productive the latent forces of a coal field; shall it do less when convinced that the rousing of the latent forces of immortal minds by instruction, is more productive of gold than the most famous diggings? Moreover, false ideas can be removed. Does one select the education of some one who is insane, or a thief, or murderer, and go about representing *that* as giving a correct idea of what is meant by education (used generically) and so seek to bring learning and the establishment of schools into disrepute, to embarrass all instruction and so strengthen all the evils of ignorance? Does any one among us respect ALLISON'S argument as a reason for allowing the masses to remain in ignorance? Superior instruction should have its armory full of the facts and arguments well wrought, which convince candid reason and honest men that education should be universal; that it has benefits for all; that even the interest of the few who would limit culture to themselves is better subserved by the education of all the people than by the ignorance of any.

3d. The observance of correct methods of teaching and discipline.

This is a region of untold possibilities of good or ill. Method determines the quality of instruction, and discipline—the success of the teacher; without method or with bad method no one should presume to impart superior instruction.

How many minds have thus been ruined! What wrecks have been strewn around college halls! They prompt the sentiment expressed in GRAY'S Hymn to Ignorance and then felt by him towards Cambridge:

"Hail horrors, hail! ye ever gloomy bowers,
Ye gothic fanes and antiquated towers!"

Bad methods have occasioned the gibes and caricatures that culture has so often received of ignorance. But we have so approached the idea of correct methods from different directions, that I omit further specification.

4th. The fullest possible communication of itself to all the people.

The work of college and professional lecture and recitation rooms can not be done elsewhere. But a vast amount of their material is susceptible of statement in popular form. Those engaged in superior instruction should everywhere be engaged in the work of promoting universal education, furnishing lectures, treatises, writing for publication, devising means to carry sound principles and useful information into every nook and corner of the land, making every man a worthy citizen, and every town a miniature republic; that all the forces which unite to constitute us a great people, whether of the smallest civil unit, or of the commonwealth, or the nation, may be in their activities spontaneously accordant with right reason, controlled by good will and all move in harmony, neither crumbling into fragments for want of cohesion, nor rushing upon each other in a fatal centralization. Sometimes the high truths taught will fall on ears that do not hear. Even the seeds of immortal life fall on various soils, some on stony places. No teaching can expect an exception in its favor, yet it must sow beside all waters:

> "No word from man to men
> Shall sound the same again;"

Something is lost through interpreters,

> "Never for finest thought
> Can crystal word be wrought,
> That to the crowd afar
> Shall show it more than telescope a star."

Yet we are thankful for our imperfect view of the stars, and so will the many hearts ultimately be for any words of high wisdom spoken for their benefit.

In our land and in this age of working men as pronounced by GLADSTONE and HYACINTHE, let all superior instruction rejoice that no barrier stands in the way of saying to every toiler:

> "There's good if you but search it out,
> Make pure thine own conscience,
> Nor mind what the rest are about.
> And whether your work may have fallen,
> In sanctum, or office, or shop,
> Remember the low grounds are crowded,
> But there's always room at the top."

After listening to General EATON'S address, the discussion of Mr. EDSON'S paper was resumed.

Principal Took, of Dickson Seminary, Illinois, thought it impossible to establish and endow academies in the place of public schools, and that the colleges should rather establish preparatory departments sharing in their endowment; that it would be easier to obtain financial support for them, as part of an old organization, than to gain it for the establishment of a new one. He moved an amendment to this effect to Dr. GULLIVER'S resolution.

Professor Safford, of Chicago University, in seconding this amendment, spoke of the analogy of these preparatory departments to the lower classes of the German gymnasia, and of our whole collegiate system as nearly coincident in scope with these gymnasia.

Dr. D. A. Wallace, President of Monmouth College, Illinois, thought that the law of supply and demand would safely regulate this whole matter. The colleges now adapt themselves to the style of preparation that is given, and other schools do the work, and all the work, that is demanded of them. The college must labor to elevate public sentiment to demand a higher style of education, and the public schools will be made to do the work which the colleges need. He wondered that a Christian nation should manifest such indifference to the Greek language, in which are treasured the foundations of our religion, and ended, "I am for the Greek, men and brethren."

Mr. Blodgett, of Illinois, said that the labor and expense often bestowed on private schools, would, if judiciously expended on public schools, make them all that is desired, and that when private schools are attempted they too usually end by failing.

Professor B. F. Mudge, of Kansas State Agricultural College, said that some of the public high schools of Massachusetts were to-day preparing students for college better than the classical academies. We must work up the high schools of the West to this class of work well.

President Gulliver thought the statements of Professor MUDGE should be taken with some allowance. Those high schools had declined somewhat. He had corresponded with Massachusetts high school teachers, and found that they had great difficulty in keeping up classical departments. The same he knew to be true of Connecticut. The colleges in the East can not keep up their classical departments, depending on public high schools alone.

Principal Edson made some remarks reiterating pointedly the positions of his paper.

Dr. Hoyt, President Academy of Sciences, Wisconsin, said the great problem at present is how best to encourage the educational forces of the nation. This can be done not by frittering away our energies in sectarian efforts, but by making all grades of our schools harmonious parts of a great national system.

At the suggestion of President TAPPAN, the whole matter, including the resolution of Dr. GULLIVER, was referred to a committee of five with instructions to report by resolution.

This committee was appointed to consist of Messrs. GULLIVER, MUDGE, HOYT, BLODGETT, and SAFFORD.

The Section then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 23.

The Section having met pursuant to adjournment, its first business was to listen to a paper by Professor T. H. SAFFORD of the Chicago University, Illinois, on "Modern Mathematics in the College Course."

MODERN MATHEMATICS IN THE COLLEGE COURSE.

Mr. President and Gentlemen:

Every one of us is aware of the enormous progress of the pure mathematics since the days of the Greek geometers; every one knows that algebra and the calculus have been invented, that they have been applied to geometry, and that this subject has itself been vastly improved; and we all know, too, that the matters treated of, numbers and forms, remain identically the same that they were in the time of Euclid. There is in mathematical science a certain unity in duality. Portions of this science relate to numbers in their various degrees of generality, as arithmetic and algebra, the calculus of function; other parts relate to geometrical forms of various degrees of complexity, as plane geometry, trigonometry, solid geometry, conic sections, the theory of higher curves and of curved surfaces.

The matter to be taught in our colleges I must therefore divide into two grand divisions, called for want of better names *geometry* and *arithmetic;* the word algebra does not, at least in its primitive signification, entirely correspond with the whole idea.

The first question I must discuss is, whether in our courses the study of mathematical science is sufficiently recognized.

A still higher unity—that of pure and applied mathematics—I will leave for the present untouched. I have no means of showing whether the time is come for its discussion. And before physics and astronomy can take their right places in respect to the course, the mathematics on which they depend for theory must be naturally arranged.

The great end of the study of mathematics, and of all other subjects in our colleges, is mental discipline; an end which does not exclude other objects, especially the advancement and diffusion of science and practical utility.

The second question I will discuss is, whether in our courses the most effective means of mental discipline which mathematical science affords are always used in preference to less powerful agents.

It does not appear from any information which I can gather that American mathematicians as a body do much for the advancement of pure mathematics; nor even nearly so much for its diffusion as do those of foreign countries. There are a few men amongst us who have written admirable works upon mathematical science; but yet they are very few compared with the great numbers of such writers abroad. And few indeed of them are original in their investigations.

Applied mathematics is, I think, more flourishing in this country; but would itself be much helped by an improvement in the direction of intelligent theory.

The third question I will discuss is, whether our courses tend to make trained mathematicians.

For many years I have been studying and teaching practical astronomy; and have found in both departments of work, that American text books do not always present the necessary mathematics in the right shape, and that it is desirable to refer for it to foreign works, not always in the English language. Our English brethern have not been many years in advance of us in this matter. I have met at times with embarrasment from the non-acquaintance of my pupils with French and German.

But, supposing that as an astronomer I was in an exceptional position, I did not think much about this experience farther than to recommend every pupil who came to me as an astronomical student to study German and French; but soon heard similar complaints from engineers. They told me that their subordinates were rarely up to the mark, that Swiss or German or some other foreigners were generally better trained than our young men; and on going a little farther with my inquiries I found that architects, stair-builders, machinists, carpenters, masons, book-binders, agreed in testifying that an amount of mathematical training which their apprentices do not get in our school system was necessary in their various trades.

Of course this inquiry led me out of the range of my present paper; but a portion of the results which I thus got, leads to the fourth question which I will discuss; whether our courses tend to make scholars who can practically apply mathematics.

Lastly, it will be my endeavor to justify the various points presented in the proposed course of mathematics indicated upon the blackboard; and I shall venture with much diffidence, some remarks upon the method of instruction to be employed.

There remains one subject preliminary to the general discussion; the definition of the term "college course."

Practically it means with us that course of literature and science which a general liberal education acquires, from the point where it diverges from the ordinary.elementary school, to the point where the student enters upon the study of his profession.

The college course is divided into two parts, usually, but not very accurately called the "college proper" and the "preparatory department."

That our American colleges as a whole are not universities is plain from their very number; a few are fast growing into universities, but the vast majority are and must always be *Secondary* schools; must be content with the position of the English so called "public schools" like Eton, and Rugby; that of the German gymnasia, or the French colleges.

The division between "college proper" and "preparatory department" is in the majority of cases gradually losing its significance, and the educational tendencies of the age are largely in the direction of such a concentration of establishments as is exemplified in the German gymnasia.

On the one hand our western colleges are fully justified in supporting preparatory departments as an integral part of themselves. It is questionable, on the other, whether they ought not to separate much more thoroughly than they do, their "classical" and "scientific" courses.

But I can not properly discuss the scientific course without including the subject of city high schools; and must here restrict myself to the classical course; leaving what I would say about the other to be inferred. The scientific course, or rather the scientific school preparatory to the polytechnic college, which we now confound in a great measure with the polytechnic college itself, is too important a subject to be treated hastily; and is rapidly increasing in importance in America.

In order, then, to fairly appreciate what we have to discuss, I will suppose that the following is the existing course:

1st year	(Preparatory,)	Algebra—Elementary.
2d "	"	Geometry—about three or four books.
3d "	"	Reviews.
4th "	Freshman,	Geometry and Algebra completed.
5th "	Sophomore,	Trigonometry—Analytical Geometry.
6th "	Junior,	Elective Mathematics—(sometimes.)

Taking this programme as a standard one, it is not at first clear how the essential unity of mathematical science is recognized in it. It begins with elementary algebra; and our text-books and methods do not recognize the fact that the first part of algebra—previous to equations—is but the scientific form of arithmetic. As a result, the books called "higher arithmetics," are often inserted between practical arithmetic and scientific, or algebra. Much in this connection is often said about the disciplinary use of higher arithmetic; as if attempting to demonstrate by imperfect processes were better for the mind, other things being equal, than real demonstrations; of which even our algebraic processes have far too little.

After the pupil has learned practical arithmetic, in a sensible way, not mechanically, he is ready to put what he has learned into the strictly scientific form of universal arithmetic; that is to deal with general, not individual numbers; at first, and for a considerable time, only with positive and commensurable numbers; afterwards, as he gains confidence in the use of algebraic symbols, with negative and commensurable ones. But all this progress should be in the line of rigid demonstration, step by step. It is not usually taught in this way; I think it a great source of failures in algebra.

Practical arithmetic is the preparation for algebra; but a preparatory course should not take up much the largest part of the time.

Our algebra-books have another fault, which renders the course still less a unit; they cover too much ground and are themselves too numerous. One book in algebra is sufficient for all practical purposes; this too begins to be recognized.

But the want of unity is still more apparent when we consider the connection in our courses between algebra and geometry. These subjects must be studied as far as possible side by side; but it cannot be accomplished unless our elementary schools provide a thorough preparatory course in geometry. In the grammar-school the scholar should be taught geometrical drawing most thoroughly, and in connection with it geometrical form and the elements of demonstration. Such a course is necessary at that stage for many reasons; the mind is then ripe for it, it is needed in connection with mensuration in practical arithmetic, it possesses great practical value, and great disciplinary value too. This course should teach the pupil how to *do something* in geometry as well as how to *know something;* this will educate him for a practical life as well as for a scientific one; and this is only a higher practical life.

With this preparatory course elementary algebra and plane geometry can begin side by side; and in multitudes of instances, illustrate each other. If the pupil not only knows rule-of-three, but also how to draw a fourth proportional to three given lines, he can understand proportion more scientifically both in algebra and geometry; addition and subtraction of positives and negatives are illustrated by the addition of lines, multiplication and division by the measurement of areas; the two roots of a quadratic equation by the two solutions of the division of units in extreme and mean ratio; and so on.

Again, in our present courses we separate for the most part rudimentary trigonometry from the measurement of the circle, solid geometry intervening; *conic* sections from the geometry of the cone, by spherical geometry and plane trigonometry, and spherical geometry from spherical trigonometry by plane trigonometry; and we neglect to a very great degree those constant reviews which are necessary to bind the various subjects together. For to the youthful mind, at least, a new book, even professedly by the same author, is often a new subject and not a review of an old one.

There should be more assimilation of the methods of treatment in the various books of a series. Algebra should be treated with much more of geometrical vigor, geometry be made more practical by the application of algebraic formulæ. Indeed there is a spurious algebra much emplyed in our geometry-books, in which the hands are those of Esau, but the voice that of Jacob; where the *length* of a line appears instead of the line itself, where the notation is geometrical, but the reasoning algebraic.

Wherever in geometry, algebra is used, it should be openly and avowedly used, so that the pupil can see the real difference between the two subjects and where their connection is; and, on the other hand, need not be embarrassed in passing from a geometrical theorem to the corresponding algebraic formula.

Look for a moment if you please, at an extensive series of mathematical text-books. Do not they impress you with the *variety* rather than *unity* of mathematical science. Should we not do better with one book, containing less matter, but bearing on its title-page " Text-Book of Mathematics," and having its contents strictly related in all their various parts? Such books—English, French, or German—which I have seen, have impressed me very favorably.

To pass to the question of the disciplinary power of mathematics. Teaching is a living thing, it must proceed from a teacher who is thoroughly penetrated with his subject; and the subjects must not therefore be so abstract that even the teacher no longer understands them fully. Nor must they be so abstract that the scholar can not grasp them fully, independently and completely, and practically apply them. As the Prussian regulations express it, the student's knowledge and ability to do (Das Wissen und das Kœnnen) must be brought into the closest relations with each other; and that ambitious striving which some of our pupils exhibit, to *go over* a certain amount must be so checked that whatever is studied shall be studied thoroughly, and above all independently; without reliance on the text-book as the ultimate source of knowledge. Every subject should be begun objectively, and treated objectively until it is understood sufficiently for the mind to begin the process of abstraction; the geometrical side of mathematics must be thoroughly cultivated; and pure geometry should occupy that relative place in our courses which it has been for many years losing.

Our students pursue algebra too far for their profit, and geometry not far enough.

I propose that higher series and the theory of higher equations be deferred and made elective; that the differential calculus be also made elective; that the analytical treatment of conic sections be made quite subordinate and auxiliary, and that the modern geometry be introduced as the method by which in the main, conic sections are studied.

No one who has taught or studied the modern geometry need be told of its simplicity, beauty, and power as a disciplinary agent; it bears the same relation to the higher mathematics that the older geometry does to the lower.

It may here be objected that it is a retrograde step to omit the higher analyses; or at least to make it elective. But let us remember that there are two classes of scholars with whom we have to deal; the non-mathematical minds, who make up the majority, must be trained upon such mathematics as they can understand; and the mathematical men, can not suffer in the least by being compelled to do their work thoroughly in the elements. It is these very men, whom I have often found helpless in applying mathematics though able in reading it; trained on the old system to that degree of *knowing* (if it can be called knowing at all) which does not involve *doing.* The great reproach of American mathematics is its lack of any great amount of originality; and that is with us repressed and stifled by want of deep and thorough cultivation in the elements. Our students attempt the higher branches of analysis before their minds are ripened by original thought and original work in the lower.

If we now look at the practicability of mathematics we find this same modern geometry to have arisen from the wants of practical men, especially engineers and architects. In that part of it which is called the "geometry of the ruler" it points out how some of the most complicated constructions can be effected by the simplest means; and it has the most intimate associations with the fine and useful arts.

The practical applications of mathematics to astronomy and engineering require a preparation in trigonometry and the trigonometrical relations of the conic sections which is not easily or usually attained under the present system. There is a synthetic algebraic geometry indicated in GAUSS' "Theoria Motus Corporum Corlestieun" which is much more useful in practical astronomy than the general equation of the second degree with two unknown quantities. That all curves of the second degree are conic sections is less important to know than the elementary qualities of the ellipse and hyperbola and their unity as conic sections; these must be taught first, and so as to be completely understood by the whole class, not merely seen dimly, before any application can be made of them. I propose then that our whole mathematical course be more *thoroughly* taught; that it be practically and understandingly taught, that anything that can be taught by a diagram, to be seen, and impressed on the pupils' minds by its application, take precedence over merely abstract matter, which is forgotten nearly as soon as it is learned; and that above all, reviews be so continually and so thoroughly made, and the two great branches of mathematics be so long and so steadily kept before the students' minds from early youth till at least the middle of their college course proper that they will *never* forget the leading principles

I have drawn out on the blackboard the sketch of a course in mathematics for five years; three years in the preparatory department, and the Freshman and Sophomore years in college. In this shape it can probably be now carried out.

For admission to the preparatory department I would require as before stated practical arithmetic, an objective and practical course in geometry. For admission to the college proper it will be seen that I propose as requisites—

Plane Geometry;

Rudiments of Plane Trigonometry;

Algebra *to* quadratics, but including logarithms in an elementary way—

thus extending the usual requirements in geometry and trigonometry, and leaving them substantially unchanged in algebra. This differs but little from the présent Harvard requirements. I have proposed a preparatory course of three years, not as really sufficient for Latin and Greek, but simply as at present practically best; leaving just now to the classical teachers the solution of their own difficult and important problem.

I will now take up the different years of the programme in order, point by point.

Geometry should be taught in strict logical order and should begin, as I have said before, about at the same time with elementry algebra; and both subjects should proceed thoroughly but slowly; and so as to bring correlated subjects together. The method of teaching geometry should compel the pupil *from the very begining* to think geometrically; the teacher should first explain the various figures as he himself draws them on the blackboard; the pupil should then be made to originate the demonstrations step by step in class; then he will draw the figures at home and *write* out brief demonstrations; again in class repeat them in good acurate language, and lastly practically apply what he has learned, both in calculating and in problems solved in writing. Frequent *extemporalia* are necessary, every week or two at least; exercises to prepare for which every student must review

A similar method must be used for algebra; here instead of geometrical figures the concrete starting point will be ordinary arithmetical combinations whose laws must first be *demonstrated.* Then will follow the laws of negative quantities, already prepared for, both in arithmetic and in geometry.

The first year will also include (in algebra) a few simple equations.

During the second year a pretty thorough review of the previous year's ground is necessary; thorough work in equations of the first degree with several unknown quantities, and the theory of areas.

Proportion in algebra and geometry belong plainly near each other.

Similarity of figures is the starting point of the modern geometry, the elements of which should be therefore taught here.

At the same time a begining should be made in the application of algebra to geometry, which is also closely connected with the modern geometry.

The third year must of course be much given to reviews; the plain trigonometry indicated belongs next to regular polygons and the measurement of the circle. Cube root I have deferred till after the binomial theorem; practically it is always done by logarithms. If there were time I would recommend adding the elementary theorems on determinants.

PREPARATORY DEPARTMENT.

	Theoretic Arithmetic and Algebra.	*Geometry and Trigonometry.*
1st year.	Theory of the four ground rules of arithmetic.* Algebraic numbers.* Simple Equations.	Elementary Theorems on Straight Lines and their Combinations, Angles, Triangles, Parallelograms, Quadrilaterals, Polygons, and on the Circle.
2d year.	Theory of Fractions. Ratio and Proportion. Equations of the First Degree.	Equality and Measurement of Areas, (with numerical app'cations.) Proportions among Lines. " " " Similarity and Points of Similarity.* " " " Elementary Theorems preparatory to Modern Geometry.* " " "
3d year.	Theory of Square Root. Powers and Roots. Elementary theory and use of Logarithms.	Regular Polygons. Measure of the Circle. Plane Trigonometry—geometrical and practical.

COLLEGE PROPER.

Freshman year.	Quadratic Equations. Progressions with application.* Complex numbers.	Solid Geometry.*, Analytical Trigonometry.
Sophomore year.	Permutations and Combinations. Binomial Theorem. (Determinants.*) Cube Root and Cubic Equations;* (Probabilities.)	Conic Sections.* Spherical Geometry and Trigonometry.]
Elective Course.	Logarithmic and Trigonometric Series. Differential Calculus.* Probability with Applications. Higher Equations. The Modern Higher Algebra.*	The Modern Geometry—both Analytic and Synthetic.*

* These subjects must be treated by modern methods, or at least by methods not usually given.

For the Freshman year complex numbers are the fittest subject to connect with analytical trigonometry, and come naturally from quadratic equations; solid geometry is a most important subject, too meagrely though wordily treated in the older text-books.

For the Sophomore year the algebraic task will include permutations, combinations, a *rigorous* demonstration of the binomial theorem, and the trigonometrical solution of cubic equations. Conic sections will be taught first from the cone itself, next by the methods of the modern geometry.

Now may follow the algebraic (not analytical) and trigonometrical treatment of the various lines and angles used in practical astronomy. This is found in GAUSS' "Theoria Motus," derived, with extreme simplicity, from the elementary properties of the curves; and will afford a preparation for analytical geometry.

Spherical geometry and trigonometry close the course, as by far the most difficult subject which I think at all desirable for an average class. These should be connected very closely with crystallography and astronomy.

In the preparation of this paper I have consulted several writers upon methods of teaching, supplementing what I got from them by my own little experience. The following are the chief principles I derived from these writers:

That the matter to be taught should be concentrated, by restricting its amount till it can be fully and completely mastered; by separating from it extraneous and in the long run, useless additions; by making the different subjects and different parts of the same subject bear upon each other.

That in teaching we should always proceed from that which is apprehensible by the senses, and should introduce the successive steps of abstraction very gradually.

That easy things should precede difficult ones, the simple should precede the complex, the concrete should precede the abstract.

There is a common opinion among educators, and so far as I can find out it is rather a prevailing one, that geometry is a much better discipline than algebra beyond the binomial theorem; it must be frankly confessed that our methods of teaching geometry are worse than those for algebra.

Let me then in conclusion present what I may call my theses.

1. Our college courses of mathematics must contain in future more synthetic geometry, and less algebra and higher analysis; more practical and less abstract matter.

2. Time must be gained by beginning geometry in an elementary way before the preparatory college course.

3. Geometry and arithmetic—both subjects taken in their widest sense—must go hand in hand throughout the course; must continually support each other, each retaining its individuality. What we now call analytical geometry must be introduced in various stages with geometry proper.

4. The text-books must diminish in size and be largely supplemented by oral teaching. Both teacher and pupil must learn better how to work at the subjects, not at his books merely.

5. The interest of educational science, of mathematical science, of physical science and of practical utility, alike demand these change.

President Tappan made inquiry as to the expediency and feasibility of teaching classes at the period contemplated, by the use of the methods of the modern geometry.

Prof. Safford, in answer, showed that some of the elementary parts of modern geometry, especially the elements of harmonics can be easily taught with geometrical drawing, even in the preparatory course. The rate of instruction should of course be slow.

Prof. C. M. Woodward, of St. Louis, thought elementary geometrical drawing should be early taught in German schools.

Prof. McGlumpfy, of Lincoln University, Illinois, said his experience favored the pupil's building his figure as the demonstration proceeds. Did not think success depended so much on genius as on careful drill. Success in teaching spherics depends on keeping the sphere constantly in the mind and before the eyes.

Prof. E. Whipple, Wheaton College, Illinois, asked the difference between the ancient and the modern geometry.

Prof. Safford answered briefly.

Prof. Woodward referred the inquirer to "Chauvenet's Geometry," and "Mulchay's Modern Geometry."

Prof. Bell, of *Indiana State Teacher,* thought if so much attention be given to mathematics as Prof. SAFFORD's scheme demands, it would necessarily crowd out many more important subjects.

Prof. A. M. Black, Monmouth College, Illinois, threw in a little pleasantry to relieve the weight of the discussion.

The reading of the next paper having been called for, the Committee of Five, appointed at Tuesday's session, announced that the purpose of the paper having been gained by the discussion, they ask to be relieved from its further consideration, and their request was agreed to.

Prof. H. M. Tyler, of Knox College, Illinois, read a paper on the "Pronunciation of the Latin and Greek."

PRONUNCIATION OF LATIN AND GREEK.

In fixing upon a method of pronunciation for Latin and Greek, it is of course a matter of primary importance that we gain a clear conception of the object to be sought. Thus one man says: "It is so seldom that we have any occasion to pronounce the words of these dead languages that it is not important to teach anything with regard to this matter." Another thinks that it is desirable to have some method of pronunciation, but one is about as good as the other; all that we want is some authorized way of enunciating the words and it makes little difference on what principle this system is based, or whether it has any principle at all.

Now, all of us who have considered this matter and who are interested in this investigation have in mind certain objects which we wish to gain; there are certain conditions which any method of pronunciation must fulfill in order to meet our approval. I will specify a few of them, that they may be before us as a guide in our argument. In the first place I am sure that we shall all agree that no method can be satisfactory unless it is a *method* consistent with itself. Nothing which is not based upon principle ought to be admitted into our system of education.

The great object which we have in view in our collegiate institutions is to teach students to see the principles underlying all facts. We are at war, then, with ourselves if we introduce as part of our instruction methods which have no principle to support and govern them. It is no uncommon thing in our schools and colleges to hear students trying to mix up two or three different theories in their method of reading. They then, as part of their *liberal* education, train themselves to habits of inaccuracy and shiftlessness: while seeking to acquire the power of systematic thought they are practising in violation of every system. They are learning, like skillful archers, to hit a single mark without fail, by seeking in practice to cover on their aim three or four marks at once, a process which can hardly result in anything better than making them mentally cross-eyed. Even two words pronounced according to contradictory principles, tend to introduce a spirit of disunity in the mind. Our method of reading Latin and Greek, should help and not hinder in the work of teaching us to be accurate and to apply principles in all our actions. The second object, which our educated men seem to be particularly anxious to attain, and which seems to be constantly attracting more and more interest among scholars, is the introduction of one uniform system throughout England and America. Scholars ought not to find their knowledge of the classics rendered practically valueless to them, even for use in short quotations, by the fact that two-thirds of their confreres consider their pronunciation barbarous and unintelligible. Students ought not to be exposed to the danger of being obliged to change their method three or four times in the course of their educational career, a process which is very apt to result in their having no method at all, if it does not give them a permanent disgust for a language which is so absurd and deformed. In fact, we Americans are placed in such a position now, that it is not safe for scholars to have too much to do with each other, lest they become so confused as to be unable to pronounce according to any system. We are all at loose ends, and if we touch each other, we are in danger of becoming ensnarled. In fact, I know of learned professors in our theological seminaries who have come in contact with students from all parts of the country, until they cannot read Greek with elegance if they try, and yet they are enthusiastic in their admiration for the language. Like some gifted, but unskillful artist, they have magnificent thoughts, beautiful in conception, exquisite in meaning, but when they seek to portray them, even with the written words ready prepared for their use, they can mould only lame and distorted orms. They have poets' thoughts, but only stammerer's words.

And this is apt to be more or less the case with a very large class of American scholars. Students having changed their system once or twice, lose all confidence in themselves and will never pronounce a word if they can help it. But words unspoken are almost like birds without wings; they lose a great part of their character their life.

One other point which has not been so prominently brought forward in this discussion is, I think of importance in determining our method of pronunciation. Language is coming every year to be studied more and more as a science. It is no longer sufficient to study Greek by itself, and Latin by itself, but both must be considered as children of a common family, and it is important to point out their relationship and trace their similarities and peculiarities; the Latin may be constantly used with advantage to illustrate the Greek, and the Greek to illustrate the Latin. As the study of the Science of Language progresses, I believe that we shall consider it more and more important to teach in this way. It must, however, prove a very great hindrance to effective teaching, if one language is pronounced in one way, and the other according to an entirely different method. It is important, therefore, to fix upon a method which shall place the two languages in their true relation to each other, as sisters in one family.

In studying any language, how much we learn of its peculiarities by comparing its different dialects. It is the breaking and twisting of the strata of the earth's surface which enables us to study geology, and so it is the breaking up of speech into dialectic forms which enables us to study linguistic science. The best opportunity given to the college student for comparison is in the Latin and Greek. Is it not then a great misfortune if here we throw a veil over the whole subject by a false system of pronunciation, which separates words really closely allied, and seems to prove relationship where none exists.

One other point I wish to refer to as having an important bearing upon this question. The pronunciation of a language naturally expresses something of its peculiarities, and reflects the character of the people who speak it. Who can doubt, for example, that we see in the manner in which we Anglo Saxons crowd the syllables of our words together, an illustration of that same nervous energy which our race has shown in business enterprises the world over? Who has failed to notice that the pronunciation of the French, exhibits exactly that same piquancy and spiciness which they show in thought and action. Now this peculiar expression largely constitutes what we might term the *flavor* of the language, which, like that of old wine, may be easily lost, but is too precious to be given up without any effort to retain it. Every language, as much as every people, has a character of its own; it is certainly important to preserve, as far as possible, the illustrations of this character. Having thus briefly hinted at this subject, we shall resume it further on.

A number of different methods have been proposed for the pronunciation of both Latin and Greek; we can only briefly notice the argument as it reasonably presents itself with reference to a few of the most prominent. The old fashioned method of pronouncing both languages according to the same principles by which we pronounce English had the advantage of being simple and easily learned, and made the Greek as little like Greek as possible. This system has been very generally abandoned in the study of Greek, and is gradually losing its position in the Latin. Very little can be said in its defence, except that it has been long in use, and it is a difficult matter to change. The time is certainly coming now, when it fails utterly to meet our requirements. It once gave us a nearly uniform system of pronunciation, but that time has long since passed away, and we cannot hope ever, if we wish, to retrace our steps to our former position. If we are really to gain the points which we have suggested as desirable, I think it requires no argument to prove that this old English pronunciation will not answer the purpose. It is impossible to unite opinions sufficiently to give us a uniform system for even one of the languages on this basis, much less to return to pronouncing them both according to it. Still further, it disguises the ancient languages in a form utterly foreign to them, so that the student always has the feeling that there is something incongruous in their appearance. Their true character is hidden.

Another more plausible theory presents itself with regard to the Greek. It is still a living language, spoken by a race of men whose influence is of importance both on account of their numbers, and their intellectual culture. The idea of considering our classical text-books as part of the literature of a living language, and of reading these relics of Athenian genius, as the language is read now in Athens, is, I confess, a very inviting one. We find, however, such a marked peculiarity in the vowel system of the Romaic, that I doubt whether, if we once determined upon this method of pronunciation we should be willing to retain it. *i*, *r*, οι, υ and υι, all have the same effect. This leads to monotony of sound which is certainly very foreign to the character of ancient Greek. It must moreover tend to introduce confusion into the minds of students in regard to the forms of conjugation and declension, and to deprive them, at least to some degree, of the aid which they find in associating difference of meaning with difference of sound. The ear can be made of very great assistance in learning a language, and it is certainly advantageous to give it an opportunity to perform all the work possible.

Still further, the Romaic has lost the ability to distinguish quantity, and this whole matter of length of tone becomes as blind to the student as under the old English method, and in the common system of reading Latin, quantity was of great significance in the language, and I cannot believe that our scholars will be content entirely to disregard it. It may be long before we shall be able to eradicate the effects of previous learning so far as always to make an accurate distinction between long and short vowels; yet let us always recognize that there is such a distinction, and train ourselves as rapidly as possible to mark this in our speech. Moreover the modern Greek, in this tendency to run to *i* sounds, has separated itself very widely from its sister tongue, the Latin. So if we wish to bring these languages just as near together as they were in the classical period, it will be a decided hindrance in our work to give to the vowels the sounds which they have in the Romaic. The vowels of the two languages were so nearly identical, that it seems wrong to separate them by giving them in our system an unnatural sound.

The question naturally arises, would it not be better to deviate so far from the rules of the modern Greek as to obviate this difficulty? But what shall we then depend upon to determine what the changes shall be? How far shall we venture to depart from any recognized standard? The question answers itself. We *must* fix upon some principle and remain fixedly by this. We cannot hope for uniformity and accuracy, if anything is left to mere arbitrary choice.

Now I feel confident that upon thorough reflection and profound study we shall become more and more fixed in the opinion that to present these vowels with their true effect and in their proper relation to each other, we must try to restore the sounds which the ancient Greeks gave to them. In regard to the first four vowels, our course is plain. The ancients certainly pronounced the first vowel *ah* as in father, *ε* as *e* in prey, and (*e* had the same sound, shortened) *i* as *i* in machine; *ω* as long *o* in tone, and *o* the the same, shortened. The pronunciation of *u* evidently changed with the history of the language. The analogy of the sister tongues, as well as the very nature of the case, must convince us that the original sound was that of *u* in prune. We have further evidence in the fact that the Baeotians wrote *ou* for *u*, in all probability in order to preserve its original sound. So in giving it this pronunciation we shall probably come nearest to the Greek in its original purity.

Then, if we give to the Latin vowels the sounds which they manifestly had among the ancients, these two languages assume at once in their vowel system their proper relation to each other.

Now, if we feel that we are driven to the necessity of seeking to return to the ancient pronunciation in any particular portion of the language, it is plain that we must carry the principle through, and give every sound as nearly as possible as the ancient Greeks and Latins would have given it. Then, if the difficulty of finding a good pronunciation of the vowels in modern Greek leads us to return to the original sounds, consistency will lead us to complete the work. I feel confident that in a few years we shall be glad to do so, not merely for the sake of consistency, but I might almost say, from every consideration which has an influence on this question. Having hinted briefly at some of the arguments which turn our attention in this direction, I will now consider a little more fully how far we can gain satisfaction here.

Our first practical need is to get a uniform system of pronunciation throughout all our schools and colleges. As we have already suggested, it is useless to think of returning to the old English method; that is too thoroughly a thing of the past, and has too many enemies. If we are to have success, we must go forward, not backward. Shall we try to unite on the plan of considering the classics as living languages, and pronouncing them as such? We are met by the fact that the Latin is certainly not a living language, and in the Greek we are brought face to face with the difficulties already suggested. Moreover, this proposal is nothing new. Men have had it for a long time before their minds, but it has awakened very little enthusiasm, at least few have really adopted this proposition. Is it probable that this method could be made sufficiently attractive to gain the general approbation of teachers?

On the other hand, I believe that there is among scholars, a constantly increasing desire to return to the ancient method. We can see this, both in this country and in England. In the latter, they send us invitations and suggestions, with a view to securing this uniformity. In our own land we have the recommendations of the Philological Association, which tend in the same direction, and which have also received general approval among the prominent teachers throughout the country.

A little interesting discussion, and a demonstration of the feasibility of the plan, is, I think, all that is necessary to turn the majority of educated minds in this direction. This is the method on which we are most likely to be able to unite. But this is not all. This method would bring us very nearly into agreement with the usage of the gymnasia and universities of Germany. Twenty-five years ago this would have been a matter of little consequence; but now when so large a proportion of our philological and scientific students get a portion of their education abroad, it is a consideration of no small moment. Our students then, entering these universities, would find that their Greek and Latin had not suddenly become so strange as not to be recognized by the ear.

The second object which we have considered it desirable to gain, is, to place the Latin and Greek in their proper relation to each other. It is, of course, not necessary to dwell upon this point, for we propose in this way to put them in the same posture with reference to sound which they originally occupied. In this respect our aim would be exactly reached.

The next object which we have thought it important to attain, is, to pronounce in such a manner as to bring out, so far as possible, the original expression of the language, to seek to have our reading express *character*. Think what an effect it would have on German, to read it as we read English, distorting their vowels to fit them to our mouths. Does some one say, that if we were accustomed to no other method, we should be as well off as we are now? I answer that is impossible; those sounds have grown up with the growth of the people, and have changed with their changes. They have wrought their own character into their manner of speaking, and if we do not read as they do, we change their language into something which it is not; we should have nothing better than a sort of Americanized German. Think again of the absurdity of pronouncing French according to English rules. Why, the French sounds are as suggestive as the working of their features; their nasals are as full of expression as the shrug of their shoulders, their accent is as full of meaning as their actions. No one can know French and have any appreciation of it, unless he can read it as the French do.

Now all this is equally true with regard to the ancient languages, each has its own peculiar character, and that character is to a certain degree wrought into the language, and we can learn to express it if we will. Who can doubt that in this way we can bring out fresh attractions in the languages, and clothe them in new and appropriate beauty. Just in this connection it is important to notice the subject of accent. We have always been accustomed to accent Latin words according to the rules of the ancients, never putting the stress on the last syllable, but on the penult if long, and otherwise on the ante-penult. Then there has arisen the idea that in order to pay proper attention to quantity, we must accent the Greek according to the same laws. It seems absurd that such a theory should have started, but I think it is a thorough insult to the Greek language to retain it. Whatever may be our theory in regard to the ancient Greek *tonos*, we know that it must have had some peculiar effect on the vowel on which it fell. It was an effect, probably, which we cannot imitate, and which we should fail to appreciate if we did. The Modern Greek, however, suggests to us that our ordinary stress is the natural successor of the Greek *tonos*, and we can hardly fail to believe that it as nearly resembles it in nature, as modern taste and habits would permit. The acute accent must have had something of the effect of a peculiar stress laid on the syllable to which it belonged. The grave accent as it is now written on final syllables closely connected with following words, was of course the same, somewhat less prominent in order not to break in upon the smooth flow of the sentence. The nature of the circumflex was so modified by the nature of the compound vowel to which it belonged, that it will be very difficult for us to get its true force, and yet, as we gain a fuller appreciation of the effect of quantity, I doubt not that this matter will receive new light. Now these accents are a reflection of the variety in the activity of the Greek mind. The Roman expressions moving on with that steadiness and dignity, that solid force which so characterized the people, cared for little variety in accentuation, and never would put the stress on a final syllable. This grand uniformity—we might almost call it solemnity of movement—like the measured tread of the legions, was music to the Roman ear. The Greeks, on the contrary, were of a different character. They loved that sharpness which is occasionally given to a word by accenting its final syllable. They disliked that monotony which must arise from pronouncing all classes of words on the same unvarying principle. In the verb the stress was thrown back from the termination upon the more radical parts of the word; in the noun, it was frequently the case that the affix received the emphasis. In this manner the Greeks secured more of that variety in which they so much delighted, and gave to their sentences a certain vivacity and piquancy of expression which made them more agreeable to their ears.

To use the same illustration which we have employed before, think of taking the system of accentuation which belongs to the German language and of applying it to the French. The heavy stress laid upon each radical syllable would almost destroy that peculiar charm of French conversation, its liveliness of expression; would change the whole character of the language. The same would be true reversed; the German pronounced as the French is, without any peculiar stress on certain syllables, would be no longer itself; would be but a poor, faint shadow of its former grandeur. So the Greek expression is lost if a foreign accent is used. The language has its own system of accentuation, and if this is lost, its features must be proportionably distorted. The truth is, language is too delicate a plant not to be injured by such abuse. If you try to twist it into a new form, it is broken and mangled, and cannot retain the gracefulness of life. Its beauty consists in being viewed as nature made it, and nature makes all its parts to fit one another, forms and sounds and expressions all combining to produce a concordant effect.

We are obliged to acknowledge that we do not at once enter upon smooth sailing in taking this course. Our accent thus given is not the ancient Greek *tonos*. But this ancient *tonos* manifestly drew attention to one syllable, for one accent and only one belongs to each word. We also in this way give prominence to this same syllable, and that is certainly a gain. But appreciation of the peculiarities of a language is gained only by continued study; it is a plant of slow growth. Here, as elsewhere, the true lover will learn by a sort of instinct to appreciate the peculiarities of his favorite, if he only begin right and become sufficiently intimate. If we will only cease utterly to ignore this feature of the Greek, we shall soon know better what it means.

But some one will remark: "If you give this prominence to the written accent, you are in danger of disregarding quantity." I answer, not at all, but on the contrary, give to the quantity just that importance which it originally had. In our present systems of pronunciation, we really entirely neglect it. We do not observe quantity, because we put the accent on the penult, if long. Quantity refers to length of tone, and in order to regard it, we must make the long vowels, *long*, and the short ones, *short*. Do you say that this will add greatly to the difficulty of learning Greek? I answer, yes, because it is always difficult to eradicate faults from our minds, and having become accustomed to make little or no distinction between long and short vowels, it will be difficult to accustom ourselves to do so. But when those of us who teach become accustomed to making this distinction, our students will get the habit much more easily.

In Latin we have hardly done as well in this respect as in the Greek. Under our system of pronunciation, greatly to the astonishment of young pupils, short vowels often sound longer than long ones. Many students puzzle long and wearily before they can understand what this quantity is, and to some I think it always remains an awful mystery, which, like the doctrine of election, it isn't best for the multitude to think about. Yet, it is a matter of great importance, influencing the whole form and expression of the language.

It may be said that the observance of quantity makes difficulties, but that is far from being an unmitigated evil. Students have no objection to hard work, if their toil brings to some result. They will gladly mine in hard, narrow veins, if the ore is enough better. Of two text-books read, they are almost sure to look back with the greater pleasure on the one which was harder. I doubt not, that from our present stand-point we are in danger of greatly exaggerating the difficulties of such a plan as we propose, but, however that may be, with the additional charm which will be given to the ancient languages, I am sure that students will learn them with less weariness than now. In fact, nothing so wearies a student as that which cannot be made to appear rational.

But some one will farther object: "The plan is attractive enough to restore the ancient pronunciation, but it is an impossibility. Some of the sounds it is beyond our power to discover. So it is impossible to get a consistent theory in this way." Now this objection has a certain foundation in fact, but I think not such as to interfere seriously with us in our plan. In both languages we know the sounds of the simple vowels; in both also, the sounds of nearly all, if not all, of the simple consonants. There are a few combinations which are yet subjects of dispute, and yet these combinations are still under discussion; generally, because they appear so rarely, or occasionally because a sound is so peculiar that any description of it must be vague:

Our objection, then, seems to be something like this. We have only descriptions of these sounds, and these descriptions will occasionally disagree in slight particulars; therefore, we cannot hope to read exactly as the ancients did, and so it is better to give up the whole attempt. Now let me illustrate this argument. Every year I teach a class commencing German. In the first part of the grammar are some rules which describe the German pronunciation. These rules are so worded that in some cases it is almost impossible to tell exactly what they mean. In some cases they are such that I am obliged to contradict them in my oral teaching. Yet I would a thousand fold rather give those rules to a bright student without instruction or comment, than to tell him to pronounce as if reading English. He will gradually feel his way more and more into the German style and spirit, and though he will have faults, they will not detract greatly from his appreciation of the language.

Any of us, in learning a foreign tongue, find that there are some sounds which persistently elude our grasp. Perhaps we never master them, and yet for the mere enjoyment of reading to ourselves, who of us would not prefer, even in our poor way, to read our French and German as the French and Germans do, rather than to murder them in English manacles. Our mistakes do not prevent us from appreciating the harmony of their sounds, the expression of their tones, the beauty of their rhythm, the characteristic expressiveness of their manner of speaking. We find that the more we read the foreign language, the more we seem to come into sympathy with it, and are able, more and more harmoniously, to join the sounds. Now isn't it better for us to take hold of the Latin and Greek in the same way? Why should a few difficult sounds discourage more here than in a modern language? We can still gain a very fair conception how the words sounded to the ancients; we can gradually work ourselves into a fuller appreciation of the character of these languages, and of the men who spoke them. So these grand works of the past will come to have more and more the effect on us which they had on those for whom they were written. The work of reproducing the ancient pronunciation, of course, has its difficulties, yet, in its main features, it is simple. Our Greek grammars are accustomed to explain the sounds which the letters originally had, and the pronunciation of the Latin has been explained so that all can understand it. We have already admitted that some difficult questions arise, but they refer to comparatively unimportant points. These difficulties will, however, be almost sure one after another to be cleared away as we come to devote more attention to this subject. More thorough study, with a practical end in view, can hardly fail to settle the greater part of these questions to our entire satisfaction.

We hear it said very frequently, even by teachers, that this question of pronunciation is a very unimportant one. Where they do not say this, their actions often proclaim it. "We care to pronounce very little," is their feeling, "and for that little the easiest method learned is the best." This is an extreme, but a by no means uncommon view. But all through our schools and colleges there has spread the feeling that it is not worth while to spend much time in pronouncing or rather in reading in the original form, for we do not in any case read it as it was intended to be read. The very fact that our manner of reading is known to be incorrect, will always dampen the enthusiasm of students in their practice. Now such a state of affairs, I am sure we must all agree, is a very great hindrance to thorough scholarship. The greater part of what we learn in life by means of language, comes to us through the ear rather than through the eye. This is the natural manner of receiving instruction, and it is exceedingly difficult to make much progress in any other way. In studying a new language this is peculiarly true. No young student has had practice in learning language except by the constant aid of the ear. It is a matter of great importance, therefore, that we should accustom ourselves to read the classics in their original form, not less, but more. Let the word be to the pupil not merely so many characters on paper, but let it have a living power in sound. No wonder that people call those dead languages which neither have speech nor breath in them.

We all know how much help we get from our ears in learning a modern language; why can we not receive similar aid in our study of Latin and Greek? So we would say, let the student keep the words constantly ringing in his ears. In this manner he will not only acquire his first knowledge with more rapidity, but he will the sooner come to that point where he can give over the laborious process of translating, but can read and understand through the single medium of the original, the words being as living realities, representing ideas as vividly as if they belonged to his own language.

Now one great difficulty which has stood in the way of this only rational method of studying language has been the almost universal feeling that our system of pronunciation is entirely out of place, is a mere shift to get over a difficulty which we would not face, and so the less it is used the better. I should be ashamed to say how large a proportion of our college graduates, I honestly believe, are utterly unable to pronounce Latin or Greek decently. Now why such utter neglect of attention to this point? Why do students lose all the help which they might get in this way, except that men will not pay attention to these false systems of reading? And so we do not admire or even respect the ancient authors in their original form, but only in our poor translations.

I believe it is the ardent desire of every zealous student to hear HOMER as he was heard in the Greek festivals, to listen to DEMOSTHENES as he spoke on the Bema, to read CICERO and VIRGIL as they were read in Rome. Yet even if we cannot perfectly reproduce their tones and accents, let us approach as near as we can, and try to catch them just as they utter them, though they be rendered somewhat indistinct by the distance which separates us. Let us hear their words undisguised by foreign influence. Thus only can we hope to know them as they are.

The practical question when and how this change can best be made, naturally presents some difficulties. It will be remembered that two years ago, the Committee of the Philological Association recommended that the vowels of both languages be pronounced according to the Continental method, and that their report when offered was received with acclamations of approval. Last year the same recommendation was repeated with the additional proposition that the written accent and the quantity of the syllables be observed. This summer no new report was offered by the Committee, and two papers were read, upholding the English method. In neither of these, however, was there any reference to the Greek, and it seemed to be admitted that the general sentiment was in favor of pronouncing this language according to the Committee's suggestion. This, however, must mean an attempt to restore the ancient sounds to the letters, for no one would for a moment think of adopting peculiarities of individual Continental nations. All scholars who give these sounds to the vowels, seek to go back throughout to the ancient sounds, and we shall, of course, do this better than the Germans or French if we can. We believe that it is the almost unanimous opinion of the leading Greek teachers of our country, that we are generally ready for this change in Greek.

In regard to the Latin we are met by greater difficulties and the plan must encounter more opposition. We have noticed, however, the influences which must move us in this direction, and public opinion seems generally to expect that the change must come. It has already been tried in prominent institutions and has received their approval. Perhaps we are not ready for a general change as yet, but let us, at all events, consider the feasibility of the plan, and be ready to receive it with as little disturbance as possible, when the time for its adoption may seem to have come. A single remark with regard to the use of the word Continental in this connection. All of the European nations have sought to pronounce the classical languages as they were originally spoken. They have all, however, introduced some individual peculiarities.

When we speak of a Continental system of pronunciation, we of course intend to except these national errors, and when we speak of adopting the Continental pronunciation, we mean to do so because it has generally retained the ancient sounds, and we would receive it only so far as it thus restores these languages to their birthright. I have purposely in my essay avoided the use of this term, and it is only in the sense thus explained that I would speak in favor of the "Continental Method." As I have already remarked, we wish to read Latin and Greek as the ancients did, and no other plan can satisfy us.

Permit me once more, before I sit down, to call attention to the immense evils which are growing out of our present disagreements upon the question. The fashion is spreading itself more and more through our schools, and even into our colleges, of entirely neglecting the reading of Greek and Latin, and spending all of the time in translating. So our students have no pleasant recollection of the beautiful form in which the classical authors express their thoughts; we are in fact coming to a point where we know nothing of the original works, but are only acquainted with our poor renderings of them. Now, while I feel that there is a right way and a wrong way of reading, I wish to express here my firm conviction, that it is vastly more important that we read much than that we read according to any particular system. We are in danger of forgetting that the classical languages have their own inherent power and beauty wrought out in their form, and it is my great hope that we may fix upon some settled system, especially in order that we may all feel more interested in the Greek and Latin as they were written.

So in closing this exceedingly imperfect expression of my scattered thoughts on Greek and Latin pronunciation, permit me, as preaching a by no means unimportant rule of conduct, to make a practical application and to add a few earnest words of exhortation. It is useless to deny that public opinion is changing in regard to the study of the ancient languages. Men, who like enthusiatic lovers have spent their lives in unwearied devotion to classical study, may be often seen looking up with grieved expression to find that a cold unappreciative age is rudely crowding them off the stage into obscure corners, that there, unrecognized save by the pity which despises, unnoticed save by a few parting sneers, they may muse over their sorrow and watch the dying form of their love. That classical enthusiasm which formerly prevailed in our colleges is dying by inches, perhaps fading away forever; we trust, however, only passing a crisis in life to reawaken to fresh beauty and unexampled attractiveness. Men do not generally come out from college now with a thorough love for those well-thumbed text-books, whose lines were lines of light illuminating the college course. They are not as apt as once they were to look back to the classical professor's desk as the altar from whose ever burning fires they daily re-enkindled their enthusiasm. Certainly the classics are not appreciated now as they should be, whether we are worse than our fathers or not.

But is it strange? How many of our students never read a page of Greek or Latin they only laboriously work out some translations, and then try to admire these distorted representations which they have themselves so poorly made. There isn't one student in a hundred that knows anything of reading Greek and Latin, and yet we are grieved that they are weary of this all-work-and-no-play process. We cannot expect even of the genius of HOMER that he should be able to inspire all the poor school-boy translations of his immortal works.

Greek, in order to preserve its influence, must be read as Greek, each word proving a living power to the student as it did to the ancient Athenian. We have stripped the winged words of the ancient bard of all their pinions, and then wonder that the poor plucked and wounded beauties fall in the dust to be trodden under foot. We are pained when we cannot detect the honeyed sweetness of PLATO's words, forgetting that we have torn the tongue from the poor philosopher's mouth, that the PLATO of our schools has been rendered mute through the abuse of the age, and can speak only through the poor medium of unappreciative interpreters, upon whom also depends his reputation.

How many of our young men grow up with the firm conviction that in the weary labors of the Trojan ÆNEAS, they worked and struggled harder than he! Poor fellows, they were not even accustomed after the day's fight to go over the battle field already won, to erect the trophies and discover the glories of their position. They never really learned how much ground they had gained.

Now we hold, that it should be the constant aim of every teacher of language, to bring his students into the closest possible contact with the authors to whom he introduces them. The spirit of the ancient sages was embodied in this literature of Greece and Rome. Let the ancient and the modern commune just as freely as they possibly can. These literary relics of the past are pictures of humanity's struggles and discouragements, its hopes and aspirations, in some respects of its highest attainments, its most glorious successes. How important for their appreciation that students should see these pictures as they were painted, not through distorted copies. Many of these are treasures of art, the best gifts of the highest genius; students may do well to copy them, even to weary themselves in studying their details, but let them also learn from this labor with the greater joy to throw aside their own poor work, and sit down where they can gaze most directly at these representations of beauty, and drink in the lessons of their loveliness.

Now it is certainly impossible for men of culture to come in contact with the best spirits of the classic age, without falling in love with them. All that is necessary is to know them. But to this end we must really read the originals, the Latin and Greek as they wrote it and spoke it. We must give back to the words their living force. Let them be no dead form, imperfectly symbolizing and suggesting truth, but restore to them their vitality and let them live and speak. To this end, even if you do not pretend to know the ancient pronunciation, yet, according to some system, read and re-read these grand ancient authors, in the form in which they so moved the hearts and moulded the lives of the men for whom they were written. Better still, we should say, seek to reproduce them as perfectly as possible in tone and accent, as they were spoken twenty centuries ago. But at all events, and by all means, *read* the Latin and Greek.

Men taunt us with devoting our lives to the study of dead languages. Dead? They have been for centuries the foundation of the best culture which the world has known; they have broadened men's minds, furnished them stores of knowledge and constantly shaped their lives. Dead? The truth which is contained in them is the greatest influence in the world. So there are men who die, and in their death just begin to be known, and so in their dying, just begin to live. So there are hearts which are dead, but they may be revivified by love, and learn constantly to display new virtues to their friends. Such a vitality may enthusiasm breathe into classic words until HOMER shall sing to audiences more numerous and more appreciative than ever before. DEMOSTHENES shall kindle to high-toned enthusiasm larger bodies of patriotic citizens, and PLATO give instruction to a grander band of disciples than in ancient Athens, and CICERO gather about him more numerous and more faithful friends than at Tusculum. These, and hundreds more, will live again and influence life about them, if we will but read

A spirited discussion ensued on Professor TYLER'S paper, participated in by Dr. READ, Professors HISTLER, WESCOTT and HARRIS, and Miss BUCHANAN.

Dr. Daniel Read, President of the University of the State of Missouri, at Columbia, said:

I rise, Mr. President, to express my hearty approbation of the tone and sentiment of this paper, as well as my agreement in the main, with its principles.

If we had had no other exercises before this Section of the Association than the present, and that which preceded it (Professor SAFFORD'S), it would have been worth while, for these alone, to establish this department.

You will remember that it was with some misgivings, that we last year created this new Section, but I now feel that the wisdom of our action has been fully vindicated. For one, I most heartily thank these young Professors for their excellent and scholar-like dissertations; and, but for the resolution already adopted to entertain no votes of thanks, I should now move such a vote, as an expression of what I am sure, all feel, whether agreeing or not with every particular view or opinion of the speaker.

No doubt there is difficulty in determining the true pronunciation of the classical languages; and certainly there is great diversity among the best scholars. I believe it was ERASMUS who said that when the ambassadors of different countries, at one of the German courts, attempted to speak Latin in one of their convocations, it was as though all Babel had come together. One thing certainly is fixed—that is the quantity—and here there is no room for doubt or dispute. HOMER and VIRGIL, ANACREON and HORACE, have irreversibly and with few exceptions fixed the *longs* and *shorts* of syllables, and from them and other poets there is no appeal. Here there is agreement among all true classical scholars, all over the world, and adopting whatever vowel sounds.

The anecdote of Lord CHATHAM is a familiar one, that when quoting from VIRGIL:

Rhadamanthus habet durissima regna castigatque auditque—

he pronounced the *i* in *castigat* short, and the whole house resounded, *castigat*, my lord, *castigat.*

A similar anecdote is also related of some other statesman, who, unfortunately pronounced the *i* short in *vectigal.* I fear that in our Senate a like blunder would not meet with so summary and instant rebuke—and alas, I know this is true even of some of our classical recitation rooms. In this case, the *i* may be pronounced either according to the English or continental method, without raising a question of scholarship. I prefer to make the vowel sound of the *i* as long *e*, as probably, if not certainly, more like that of the Romans.

Yet I suppose, if CICERO were here before us, pronouncing one of his own orations, we should not one of us, whether English, or German, or French, understand him. The same would probably be true, if we could have before us CHAUCER or SPENSER, or even SHAKSPEARE or MILTON. We should not from their own mouths understand their most familiar lines. Such changes does time make upon language. We probably pronounce their immortal verse far better than they themselves did.

But there are some—I will not say scholars—who profess to have made new and wonderful discoveries in regard to Greek accent, and who make accent take the place of quantity. Quantity is one thing—accent is another. They are consistent, and not antagonistic.

This is no new subject, as some who do not know any better suppose. I took up, only last week, a most beautiful copy of SPELMAN'S "Dionysius of Halicanassus," printed about the middle of the last century, and there found the whole subject of Greek accent and quantity discussed by the learned annotator with a precision of learning which I have seen nowhere surpassed, showing clearly what belongs to the one and what to the other, and the utter absurdity of allowing accent to destroy quantity. Both accent and quantity, if rightly understood, can be preserved. The attempt to make the accent of the first syllable, in our common Greek paradigms διδωμι (didomi) or τιδημι (tithemi) control the quantity of the second syllable, I confess, is a little too much for my nervous system.

I believe what is sometimes called ecclesiastical Latin was the language of that great religious assembly which is the wonder of our age. Priests and bishops, coming from all parts of the world, seem to have understood each other in that great council (the Ecumenical) at Rome, and thus to have realized a universal church language. Their pronunciation must have been essentially the same. Was the unity attained through church unity and communion? If so, it may be possible for the scholars of the whole world to realize by their correspondence and intercourse something of like unity.

I confess, for myself, however, I have never been able to understand a German, a Frenchman, a Pole or an Italian much better when he was reading or speaking Latin than when using his own language, the intonation and peculiar manner of utterance is so entirely different from ours.

The vowel sounds of the continent I would adopt, as most nearly approaching the Roman, and especially that of *a*. Yet, I am obliged to say, that the ridiculous medley which most of our American scholars make in attempting the continental sounds is rather discouraging.

I must end, as I began, in expressing my approbation of the paper in its general tone and tendency.

The opinion was passed by those who favor the English mode of pronouncing Greek and Latin, that the task of returning to the ancient pronunciation of the Greek and Latin is quite as hopeless and unprofitable as that of attempting to return the English language to the pronunciation current in the days of CHAUCER and SHAKSPEARE.

A resolution was passed deferring further discussion until the next session.

A resolution limiting all speeches to ten minutes each, was also adopted.

President Tappan announced the following Committee to nominate officers for the ensuing year:

President WALLACE, Mr. W. D. WILLIAMS, President DENISON, Principal EDSON, Professor S. G. WILLIAMS, Principal SCRIBNER, and Mr. B. F. WRIGHT.

Adjourned to Thursday at nine o'clock, A. M

THURSDAY, AUGUST 24.

The Department met according to adjournment and resumed its discussion of Prof. TYLER's paper on the pronunciation of Latin and Greek.

Professor Tyler corrected some misapprehensions of the spirit of his paper; deprecated the carping on small and comparatively unimportant points, and asked for that candid discussion which may in time give us a uniform standard of pronunciation.

Profs. KISTLER, TYLER and BERG, after some remarks by Prof. KISLERT, on accent in Greek prose and poetry, gave several specimens of their manner of pronunciation by reading passages from Homer, Thucydides and Anacreon, showing a very considerable difference in the pronunciation of persons following the same avowed method.

Professor Berg also read passages from Horace, showing the German style of pronouncing Latin.

After some further discussion by Dr. ALLEN, of Illinois, and Profs. WESTCOTT, WHIPPLE and EDSON, the Department adopted the following resolution, proposed by Hon. Mr. HENKLE, of Ohio.

"RESOLVED, That a committee of three be appointed by the President to prepare rules for the pronunciation of Latin and Greek, so far as uniformity can be attained, to be submitted to the next Annual meeting of the Department; and that the Committee be requested to correspond with the Committee of the Philological Association."

The President appointed as members of the committee, Profs. TYLER and KISTLER, and Prof. BOISE, of Chicago, and these gentlemen were instructed to associate with themselves, two eminent Latinists.

Prof. S. G. Williams, of Cleveland, from the committee appointed to nominate officers for the ensuing year, reported the following ticket, which, on motion, was duly elected:

President, Dr. McCOSH, Princeton College, New Jersey.
Vice President, Dr. DAVID A. WALLACE, Monmouth College, Illinois.
Corresponding Secretary, ELI T. TAPPAN, Kenyon College, Ohio.
Recording Secretary, Prof. T. H. SAFFORD, Chicago University, Illinois.
Director at Large, Prof. A. M. GOW, Evansville, Indiana.

Dr. Read, of Missouri State University, made the following report on "College Degrees:"

The whole subject of Academic Degrees requires careful consideration. Wholesale condemnation will not do. They have changed essentially since the time when all university learning was contained in the two courses—the *trivium* and *quadrivium*.

We are told that the degrees of our American colleges, are looked upon with great contempt in Europe. Well, how happens it then, that they are so eagerly sought after? Ever since I have had connection with colleges—a good long time—we have been at every returning commencement beseiged and besought for degrees, especially the D. D., for eminent divines so represented to us, of England, Ireland, or Scotland. I have done my part in voting the degree to at least a dozen. Only one year ago, at our commencement of the State University of Missouri, we conferred the degree of D. D., at the most earnest solicitation of many respectable persons at home and abroad. If they hold our degrees in such contempt, I wish they would let us alone. Undoubtedly college degrees are scattered with too lavish a hand. That is not peculiar to American colleges Even Edinburgh has, to my knowledge, conferred both the M. D. and LL D., upon lawyers and doctors in this country, having as little reputation for learning here at home, as any foreigner having American doctorates. I could name a New York lawyer, having a practice not beyond the police courts, and without reputation for high standing, who was able to parade his honorary LL. D., from Edinburgh. Indeed, I have been assured from the highest sources, that it was perfectly understood that five guineas was a good and sufficient consideration for these high sounding titles from this famous institution. It is just that I should say that this relates to many years since. I hope there has been improvement there, as I think there has been here, in this matter of conferring degrees upon foreigners.

Now a word before I sit down as to Bachelor of Science, and Bachelor of Philosophy. Have we to fight this battle over again? I thought this question was settled twenty-five years ago. When Dr. Wayland proposed a degree appropriate to students pursuing a purely scientific course I well know how great an outcry was raised. I am not sure but the pulpit as well as the press sounded the alarm, as though all learning was to perish, if Latin and Greek were not to be made essential to any recognized college honor whatever. But the degree has been introduced into our colleges. This action cannot be reversed. In my judgment no wise friend of classical learning ought to desire to reverse it, lest public opinion turn against classical learning itself in consequence of the bigotry of its advocates. Since this question was first mooted, millions of money and millions of acres have been given for the endowment of scientific and practical institutions. Congress and State Legislatures, and individuals have come forward with their millions. The friends of these institutions make no attack whatever upon the literary courses.

Now, I ask, shall there be no honors for these institutions, or for scientific and practical courses? Shall the degree in Science or Engineering be derided. I say it is too late for this. We cannot reargue the questions of thirty years since. Some one writing, I believe it was in the *North American*, said, if some one would give Harvard a cotton mill, doubtless the corporation of that venerable seat of learning would run it in the interest of science. But this was a good while ago. We are beyond a sneer, now that we have our departments of Practical Chemistry for students, as well as other appointments for practical instruction in Agriculture, in Mining, in Engineering, etc.

As the domain of science and literature becomes enlarged—as new sciences and new arts are introduced, we must have the appropriate honors. What "Bachelor of Arts" meant at Harvard, near the beginning of this century, we may learn from the published letters of EDWARD EVERETT and JOSIAH QUINCY. If we look to the English Universities as our exemplars in this regard, they have the degree of Doctor of Music. Harvard has its degree for Dentistry.

It seems to me, we must have academic degrees corresponding with our academic courses, and representing the standard and kind of education pursued in our colleges and universities in our own age. We cannot make our course of instruction either the *trivium* or *quadrivium;* no more can we limit our college honors to these courses, or to courses founded upon them.

After listening to the foregoing report, by Dr. READ, on "College Degrees," a very brisk discussion was participated in by Dr. READ, President E. T. TAPPAN, Professor WOODWARD, of St. Louis, Professor SAFFORD, of Chicago University, President ALLEN, McKendree College, Professor KISTLER, of N. W. University, and Principal WESTON, Lake Forest Seminary, Illinois.

The view in which all apparently concurred was that the too lavish bestowal of the degree of Doctor of Medicine, upon persons too often of very meagre attainments, either scientific or literary, had brought the title of Doctor into some discredit, although, in the main, the recipients of honorary doctorates were usually not unworthy of the distinctions conferred; that sometimes the particular title conferred did not justly mark the kind of merit which it is intended to honor; and that a very much greater degree of uniformity is desirable among colleges and universities in all the degrees that are conferred.

Dr. Allyn offered a resolution, which was adopted, to appoint a committee of five, to study up the history of degrees, to learn the practice in respect to the granting of degrees of the various American Colleges, and to report the same with any recommendations they may think proper at the next meeting of the Department.

The committee was appointed to consist of Dr. ALLYN, of McKendree College, Dr. McCOSH, of Princeton, President ELIOT, of Harvard, President WHITE, of Cornell University.

The Department then adjourned *sine die.*

Robert Allyn, President McKendree College, Illinois.

T. R. Vickroy, Professor Washington University, Missouri.

S. P. Lucy, Professor Abingdon College, Illinois.

George Howland, Principal Chicago High School, Illinois.

Mrs. S. A. Oren, Prof. High School, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Joseph Ficklin, Professor University of Missouri.

A. W. Terrill, Professor Mt. Pleasant College, Missouri.

H. K. Edson, Principal Denmark Academy, Iowa.

Eli T. Tappan, President Kenyon College, Ohio.

S. G. Williams, Principal of Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

Conrad L. Hodge, Prof. of Science, Central High School, Cleveland, O.

S. J. Buck, Professor of Iowa College.

M. W. Bartlett, Professor of Denmark Academy, Iowa.

B. F. Wright, Principal St. Paul High School, Minnesota.

W. D. Williams, Principal Acadamy for Blind, Macon, Georgia.

Francis Berg, Principal Acadamy for Blind, St. Louis, Missouri.

C. W. Pritchett, Principal Pritchett School Institute, Glasgow, Missouri.

J. W. Scribner, President Hartsville University, Indiana.

D. A. Wallace, President Monmouth College, Illinois.

J. Denison, President State Agricultural College, Kansas.

J. E. Platt, Professor State Agricultural College, Kansas.

B. F. Mudge, Professor State Agricultural College, Kansas.

J. H. Lee, Professor State Agricultural College, Kansas.

N. C. Dougherty, Principal Morris Classical Institute, Illinois.

J. B. White, President Almira College, Greenville, Illinois.

John P. Gulliver, President Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois.

Louis Kistler, Prof. North-western University, Illinois.

H. A. Fischer, Principal Preparatory Department, Wheaton College, Ill.

T. Davidson, Professor High School, St. Louis, Mo.

F. E. Seagrave, Toledo, Ohio.

Daniel Read, Pres't. Mo. State Univ.

H. M. Tyler, Prof. Knox College, Ill.

B. S. Potter, Prof. Ill's. Wesleyan Univ.

W. H. Lynch, Principal of Steelsville Academy, Missouri.

D. W. B. Kurtz, Prof. Mo. State Univ.

J. M. Holloway, Centralia, Illinois.

J. C. Hutchison, Professor Monmouth College, Illinois.

Agnes Strong, Professor Monmouth College, Illinois.

E. Whipple, Prof. Wheaton Coll., Ill.

J. H. Rlodgett, Principal W. High School, Illinois.

E. W. Coy, Normal, Illinois.

John Packer, Prof. Mo. State Univ.

M. W. Hazen, Principal High School, W. Cambridge, Mass.

Duncan Brown, Principal of High School, Warsaw, Missouri.

A. B. Abbott, Principal Glens Falls Academy, New York.

O. S. Westcott, Prof., Chicago High School, Illinois.

J. H. Barrow, Kentucky.

G. H. Laughlin, Principal of Graded Schools, New London, Missouri.

S. F. Whitney, Principal High School, Watertown, Mass.

T. H. Safford, Prof. Chicago Univ., Ill.

Samuel H. Deneen, Prof. McKendree College, Lebanon, Illinois.

M. M. Tooke, Principal Dixon Seminary, Illinois.

J. B. L. Soule, Prof. Blackburn Univ.

Edwin M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo.

Horace H. Morgan, Principal of St. Louis High School, Missouri.

Prof. Weston, Principal of Lake Forest Seminary, Chicago, Illinois.

Department of School Superintendence.

ADDRESSES AND JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS

AT THE

SESSION HELD IN ST. LOUIS

August 22, 23, 24, 1871.

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCE.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

The Department of School Superintendence of the National Educational Association met after the adjournment of the Association, on the morning of August 22d, and was called to order by Hon. W. D. **Henkle**, its President.

A resolution was adopted, to meet with the Department of Normal Schools in the afternoon.

(For report, see Tuesday's proceedings of the Normal School Section.)

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 23.

The Section met again in connection with the Normal School Section, President **White** in the chair.

The first business was the reading of a paper furnished by Hon. **John D. Philbrick**, of Boston, on "The Normal School Problem." Mr. **Philbrick** not being able to be present, the paper was read by President S. H. **White**.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL PROBLEM.

Massachusetts has four State Normal Schools, three of which were established upwards of thirty years ago—the pioneer Normal Schools on the American continent—and the fourth has been in operation seventeen years. Of these schools two are for female pupils exclusively, and two for pupils of both sexes.

In the early period of their operation, the qualifications required for admission were very moderate, and the prescribed course of study and training did not exceed one year. At that time high and graded schools being few and far between, Normal graduates, then very few in number, were, for the most part, glad to find opportunity to exercise their vocation in ungraded district schools. Gradually the standard of scholarship in these schools has been raised. The qualifications for admission at the present time probably range higher than those ordinarily required to obtain a certificate for teaching in the district schools. The regular course of study has been extended to two years, and provision has been made for a supplementary course of two years in literature and science, to meet the wants of pupils who desire to qualify themselves for positions as teachers in high schools.

These schools are not provided with practicing or model schools for the practical training of their pupils in the art of teaching, the want of which is, without doubt, a serious deficiency. One of them, however, is provided with a good school of observation where the Normal pupils are required to inspect the work of skilled teachers in the practical application of the methods which they have already learned theoretically in the Normal class-rooms. Two of the other schools occasionally borrow primary classes from the public schools of their neighborhood, to serve as subjects for illustrative lessons before the normal pupils.

The buildings occupied by these schools are commodious and comely, and sufficiently well adapted for their purpose, but they are far inferior in cost, size, and architectural pretension to many of the Normal buildings which have been more recently erected in other States. They are capable of accommodating an average of something above one hundred and fifty pupils each. Two of the schools have been furnished with boarding-houses where a considerable portion of their pupils receive board at the actual cost.

The aggregate number of pupils annually graduated, has ranged, in recent years, from one hundred and fifty, to one hundred and seventy-five, and with the present capabilities of the schools, may be expected in future to average not less than two hundred.

The annual appropriation from the public funds necessary to defray the expense of this system of normal instruction, exclusive of the interest on the investment in school accommodations and apparatus, has now reached about fifty thousand (50,000) dollars.

As to the success of this normal experiment, it is believed that, among competent and well-informed judges, there is but one opinion. It may be said to have secured the practical recognition of teaching as a profession. It has been a powerful instrumentality in diffusing throughout the community a higher ideal of the aims and objects of education. It has very largely increased the demand for capable teachers and for improved methods of instruction and discipline. It has been the means of furnishing the public and private schools a large body of accomplished and devoted teachers, by whose influence and labors the general cause of education in the State has been greatly promoted. And it is safe to say, that, at the present time there are no educational institutions in the State so thoroughly rooted in the sympathy, confidence and regard of the people, as are their Normal Schools. It is not easy to over-estimate their value. The discontinuance of any one of them would be truly a public calamity—an event, which, from present indications is scarcely more likely to occur than the discontinuance of Harvard College itself.

The success of these schools has demonstrated and made clear beyond the possibility of a doubt, the utility, the superior economy and the urgent necessity, of special preparation as a prerequisite to teaching. Still, they are capable of imparting this preparation to only a small fraction of the body of public school teachers. From the best calculation I am able to make, I conclude that the maximum number of graduates above-named, will furnish not more, perhaps less, than one-tenth of the public schools with trained teachers. These must be in future, as they are now, not distributed pro rata throughout the territory of the State, but concentrated mainly in the graded and high schools of the cities and populous villages, leaving the rural districts almost destitute of any direct benefit from the expenditure for the normal training of teachers.

According to official returns made two or three years ago, it appeared that not less than one-third of all the towns in the Commonwealth, had not employed a single normal graduate during the year preceding the date of said returns. It is of no use saying that the country towns might secure their proportionate share of trained teachers, if they were willing to pay the requisite salaries. It is unreasonable to expect them to compete, with success, for the limited supply of trained teachers hitherto in the market, with the overgrown wealth of the cities. And, besides, almost all teachers, even at the same compensation, prefer service in the graded schools of cities.

The state of the case then, briefly is this: Normal instruction has been thoroughly tested, and it has been found to pay. In respect to efficiency and value, it has justified, and more than justified the promises and hopes of its early advocates and its originators. But the supply of trained teachers thus furnished falls far short of the needs of the schools, and this very inadequate supply is largely monopolized by those communities which least need the special aid of the State for the support and improvement of their public schools. It is obvious that this state of things cannot continue. It cannot be accepted as a finality. The State is irrevocably committed to the doctrine, that it is both the right and the duty of the State to provide the means of special training for teachers of public schools.

And it must inevitably go forward in the work begun, and provide such training, not for the teachers of one-tenth of its schools only, but for the teachers of all its schools. This it is bound to do by the dictates of sound economy and common justice. The thing which ought to be done, the thing which must be done, the thing which will be done, and that at no distant day, it is confidently believed, is to secure to every public school the service of a teacher who has, for a longer or shorter period, enjoyed the advantages of special training and preparation in the art and mastery of teaching.

The essential question, then, at the present moment, which urges itself upon the attention of the friends of normal schools, is not, I imagine, what to do, but merely *how to do it*—by what best way to secure to every school a normally trained teacher. This is the Normal School Problem of the present day. The problem of the last thirty or forty years has been to secure the recognition of the necessity and value of normal training as an instrumentality in the economy of public instruction. The problem now demanding solution is, to provide the ways and means of extending normal training to all teachers.

As one means for the accomplishment of this object, it has been proposed to engraft a normal department upon high schools and academies. This scheme is beset with very grave difficulties and objections. Were it capable of producing adequate and efficient normal training, which I am unwilling to admit, it would not be difficult to show it to be an exceedingly extravagant mode of accomplishing the object. But it is a sufficient objection to it, that it has been tried elsewhere and has not been justified by success. In large cities it may be practicable and in some cases desirable as a temporary expedient, to connect a normal department with a high school, but as a system to be relied upon for the special training of the great body of teachers in the principles and methods of good school-keeping, its advantages and recommendations are outweighed a hundred fold by its disadvantages, and the difficulties which encumber it.

But why not increase the number of schools of the existing pattern, excellent as they are admitted to be, sufficiently to meet the requirements of the nine-tenths of the public schools which remain unsupplied with trained teachers?

The objection to this suggestion is two-fold. In the first place, if these schools were provided, they would not answer the purpose at the present time; the expenditure of time and money necessary to complete the prescribed course being too great to be undertaken by teachers looking for remuneration to employment in the schools of the rural districts, with their present short schools and low rates of teachers' wages. Secondly, it is impracticable, in view of the large expenditure from the public treasury which it would require. To make this apparent, it is only necessary to consider that it would involve, together with what is now invested in the normal school buildings, an outlay of something like two millions of dollars, for the requisite accommodations and apparatus, and an annual appropriation, in addition to the interest on this investment, of about half a million dollars. A system of normal schools involving such cost, and at the same time not adapted to the wants of this case is plainly out of the question.

The solution of the problem, however, is in my judgment, neither impossible nor far to seek. It consists in the establishment of another description of training schools, suited to the present circumstances, in respect to their cost and their course of instruction.

There can be no valid objection to the plan of providing different grades of normal schools, that does not apply with equal force to the plan of grades in other educational institutions.

Teachers of different grades and descriptions of schools, obviously need different degrees and kinds of preparation for their respective fields of labor. For teachers who want, and can afford, a long and thorough course of normal training, it is well and proper that schools for this purpose should be provided. Is it not equally proper that for such teachers as want, and can only afford, a short and cheap course of training, there should be provided for their benefit the requisite schools?

Suppose, with this view, we should begin with one experimental school of a new type. Let the accommodations, the equipments, and the teaching corps be modelled on the scale of the existing schools. Let the course of training at the outset be limited to a term of three months. Let the conditions of admission be maturity of age—not less than eighteen years—ability to pass a fair examination in the branches required by law to be taught in the elementary schools, and an intention to teach in the public schools of the State. Let the course of training and instruction be *strictly professional*, consisting of a review of the common branches in connection with observation and practice in a model school, and theoretical instruction in the best methods of teaching and handling the elementary branches, and in school government and school management. Especially, let the best mode of organizing, classifying and teaching ungraded district schools be thoroughly illustrated and inculcated. Such a school, if filled, might send out annually three classes of one hundred and fifty each, or four hundred and fifty in all, with a normal training of substantial value. The cost of this training of four hundred and fifty teachers would, of course, not exceed that now expended annually for the maintenance of one of the present normal schools. The expense, therefore, could not be objected to the plan, as the cost per teacher would scarcely exceed twenty-five dollars. If it is said that such a course of training must be superficial and inadequate, my answer is, that it appears to me to be extremely unwise and illogical to insist that a teacher shall have two years, or four years, of special instruction or none at all. I believe in holding up, and keeping ever in view, a high ideal of excellence to be aimed at by every teacher. I never saw too much learning, or skill, or genius, in a teacher of even a primary school, and I believe, with Dr. CHANNING, that it requires more wisdom to educate a child perfectly, than to govern a State. The more education the teacher has, the better, but for my part, if I must choose, I should prefer that the great mass of teachers employed in elementary schools, whose term of service is limited to two or three years, should be educated only to a moderate extent in general learning, with some substantial and judicious training in the art of teaching, than that they should be far more learned in the higher branches of education, without such special preparation for their work.

I should not expect even one such elementary training school as has been described, to be filled at once with pupils, without some inducements for attendance in addition to the training afforded. It is the province and duty of the State, not only to furnish the means of normal training, but to make it desirable and for the interest of teachers to seek it. As a part of my scheme, therefore, for a time, I would pay from the public treasury to the towns a premium for each trained teacher employed by said towns, and also a premium to each teacher so employed. And, besides, each teacher, holding a certificate from the proposed training school, should be exempt from the examination now required by law as a qualification for teaching. When, by the aid of encouragement of this description, the first school should be filled, a second would be provided, and this process would be continued until every public school should be furnished with a teacher who has received at least an elementary normal training.

If my calculations are correct, to accomplish this object it would require the establishment of only four elementary normal schools, the cost of whose maintenance would not exceed that of the existing four schools, which are now furnishing only one-tenth of the required number of trained teachers.

It is not my purpose, however, to recommend a rigid, cast-iron system of normal schools. Having adopted the principle of providing different kinds of normal schools to meet the wants of different classes of teachers, it should also be understood that these schools should be modified whenever experience shall indicate the necessity of so doing, or the circumstances and demands of the times seem to require a change.

I know not where to place a limit to educational progress. The course in these elementary normal schools would probably need to be gradually extended, first, to a half year, then, perhaps, to a full year. This would make it necessary to establish additional schools of the same, or a different grade, as with the same accommodations, the number of graduates must diminish proportionately to the extension of the period of the course.

In the mean time, the schools of the present grade should be increased in number as fast as the demand calls for teachers of the high culture they afford. I should be glad to see at least one school of even a higher grade than these, corresponding in character and objects with the higher teachers' seminaries in Germany, or the superior normal school of France.

Such is the outline, in rough, of what seems to me a feasible plan for securing the requisite normal training of the teachers of Massachusetts. It would be presumptuous to suppose this plan to be free from all objections and difficulties. Every human contrivance has its weak sides, but the essential question in regard to any proposed plan of action is, not whether it is absolutely perfect in all its parts, but whether it is on the whole good, and the best that under the circumstances can be devised.

This plan is submitted to the criticism of competent judges, in the hope that if it should not meet with approval, a better one may be contrived and speedily adopted.

But the normal school problem is at the present moment substantially the same in every one of our American States. In no state has more than a beginning been made in providing normal instruction; and that beginning in most of the states, consists in the establishment of one school, or at most, a very limited number, aiming to be of a high order, with courses of study in some instances covering the ground even of a collegiate education. These schools are evidently too costly, and too high in their range of studies to meet the necessities of the mass of the common school teachers at the present time, or in the near future. The state which shall first devise and practically carry out an economical and efficient plan for securing a competent normal training to all the teachers in its service, will achieve a proud distinction in a most important field of educational enterprise.

In authorizing the establishment of county normal schools, the great State of Illinois, already one of the foremost among educating states, seems to me to have taken an important step in the right direction.

The fact that the greater portion of teachers in American schools are females has a most important bearing upon the normal school question. In most foreign countries, especially in Prussia, where education is most perfectly organized, male teachers are almost universally employed, and the occupation is permanent. Under such circumstances, experience might largely supply the want of professional training. But in this country, where the schools are very largely taught by females, whose term of service is too short to acquire much skill by experience, it becomes vastly important that the teachers should begin with as much special training as it is possible to give them.

Again, since teaching in America is so generally a temporary occupation, and must always be substantially so, in case of the great majority of female teachers, it is not only the more necessary that normal training should be provided for all teachers, but it is evident that the provision for normal training ought to be vastly greater in extent, in proportion to the number of teachers employed, than in countries like Prussia, where the occupation of teaching is made a life work by the graduates of normal schools.

While engaged in the work of developing and extending our American system of normal schools, it is important to guard against the error of allowing these institutions to become mere high schools or colleges, with insignificant appendages of training appropriate to the special preparation of teachers. The proper function of the normal school is not to impart a general education in literature and science. Its appropriate business is to take pupils who have already acquired a competent general education,—that education which is assigned to man as a human being without regard to any particular destination in life, and upon this foundation to build a professional character, by imparting the peculiar training and the special technical knowledge that is calculated to promote success in teaching. To justify their existence, it is necessary that normal schools should not exhaust their energies and resources in carrying on courses of education parallel with those which belong to institutions for general education, but that they should limit themselves as far as practical to their appropriate sphere of normal training.

A discussion upon Compulsory Education being in order, in the absence of Hon. NEWTON BATEMAN, who had been appointed to open the discussion,—

Hon. John Hancock, of Cincinnati, Ohio, made the following remarks:

MR. PRESIDENT:—These are times of immense mental activity. And this activity is forcing upon the attention of peoples everywhere the consideration of questions of fearful moment. Principles in connection with the labor, and other great social problems, are boldly enunciated, and have no inconsiderable following, which are destined, if I mistake not, to shake all existing forms of government to their very foundations, and threaten, moreover, to hurl society itself into chaotic ruin. The late communistic excesses in Paris were the legitimate fruits of these principles; and the time is not far distant when such principles, unless we fortify against them by education, will carry, like baleful woes into other communities. The people now, as never before in the world's history, feel themselves a power. They are beginning to think for themselves; but they catch but uncertain glimpses of the truth—seeing men as trees walking. Yet, one-sided and imperfect as their thinking may be, it cannot be regulated by statute. Nor can these people be prevented from acting upon the partial or dangerous conclusions arrived at in their attempts to solve the perplexing problems that must forever engage a large share of the attention of those who are allowed the least participation in the affairs of government. There is no possible way of meeting the sophistic arts of selfish demagogues, except by so educating the whole people as to enable them to detect the shams of false logic for themselves, and especially true will this be with self-governing peoples.

That the stability of a republican government depends upon the intelligence of the people, is no longer a question open to discussion. But I doubt much whether we have given sufficient attention to the breadth of education necessary to such stability. A poor, superficial knowledge of the primary branches will not do it. The masses must have such a training as will enable them to deal with such questions as I have named, intelligently. Nor will it do to rely upon intellectual training alone. Our education must include also that moral training which is the great cohesive force of society.

I cannot but believe that the time is rapidly approaching when all governments, whatever their form, will have no powers except such as are the gift of the people; and whether we should rejoice or tremble at the prospect will depend upon what we shall be able to do in the meantime for the spread of genuine knowledge. If the masses of men can be made wise enough for such a condition of things, then all will be well; otherwise, stable governments will cease, and their peoples will but emerge from one revolution to plunge into another. This question comes home to us, who have decided that all our citizens, wise and ignorant, virtuous and vicious, shall have an equal voice in the affairs of the nation, with special urgency. We dare not wait for slow processes to elevate the standard of education among our people.

Opposition to compulsory education in our country arises chiefly from the erroneous notions generally entertained among us of the nature and just powers of a government. A State is an organization of a community of people, not only for the protection of their persons and property, but to do those things for their mutual well-being which cannot be done at all, or cannot be well done, by individual enterprise. The machinery devised by this community for the attainment of these objects, is called the government. Whether the right to educate is an inherent one with the State, I do not stop to discuss. The education of the mass of the people of a State never has been done by individual enterprise, and perhaps never can be; and so long as this remains a fact, such education will remain one of the proper functions of that State. As to the scope of this education, it is only to be restricted by the resources of the State. The true principles of political economy will dictate that as large a portion of these resources should be set aside for this purpose as can be done without imposing oppressive burdens on the people.

If, then, all the things a State may properly do—the protection of the persons and property of its citizens, and the doing those things necessary for their elevation and happiness which they cannot do for themselves—can only be effectually done through the means of education; and if the State has a claim to the individual in the fullest development of his powers—as I cannot doubt it has—and if, in addition, its existence for any considerable length of time as a free State is, without this education, impossible, why should it hesitate to push its rights to their logical conclusion, and demand, when it has provided the means for the education of all, that every one of its children shall have an opportunity to enjoy these advantages? To assert that the exercise of such a power is contrary to the genius of a free government, is, as I have already intimated, entirely to mistake the limitations of the functions of the State. No parent has such a paramount right over his child, as to be entitled to deny him through obstinacy or caprice, that education necessary to his highest good as an individual, and his usefulness as a citizen; much less has he a right to train up that child in the ways of vice and crime. To claim that the individual can thus defeat, on the ground of superior personal and parental right, a function of the State that infolds, in a sense, all other functions, is to introduce into the conduct of the gravest affairs that can affect the interests of men, the weak, unreasoning sentimentalism of amateur statesmanship.

I have only attempted, Mr. President, in the few minutes assigned me, to establish the abstract right of the State to enforce education upon all its people. I not only believe it to be a measure now necessary to the permanency and prosperity of our institutions, but I believe this necessity will become the more pressing as the density of our population increases. Time does not permit me, if I had the ability to do so, to indicate the methods by which such a compulsory measure might be introduced among a people entertaining such exaggerated views of the irresponsibility of the individual as do ours, with least opposition. Prudence would dictate that they should have an opportunity to adapt themselves to the burdens the measure would impose, gradually. I cannot conclude, however, without expressing the hope, that the time is not far distant, when, in America, at least, there will be no uneducated class.

Mr. McKenzie, of Nebraska, said his State has a clause providing for compulsory education in its new constitution, soon to be voted upon.

Mr. Tooke, of Illinois. This is a question in which the whole nation is interested. If the State can take money from individuals, it should use it for the best interests of the people. He would offer a resolution favoring compulsory education.

Mr. A. J. Rickoff, of Ohio. We must educate, or we perish. This has been proven in Europe. It is desirable to exhaust every other resource before adopting this plan of enforcing education. Tracts should be distributed; clergymen, lawyers, and all others, should discuss this question fully; every means should be devised first, and then, if unable otherwise to secure the desired results, let localities be permitted to adopt such a compulsory law.

Mr. Foster, of Missouri, thought this a question of both right and expediency, and would offer a resolution to that effect. If the State has the right to compel the childless rich to pay for the education of the children of the people, the State has the right to compel them to accept it.

Mr. Phelps, of Minnesota. Universal education is a necessity. If it is right and expedient to educate a part of the people, it is right and expedient to educate the whole.

If it is right for the State to send a man to prison for crime, it is right for the State to prevent that crime if possible.

The intelligent men and women of the country are all in favor of education. We have done for twenty-five years about all we could do. We must do something more. There may be virtue in waiting, but how long shall we wait? In the face of the most earnest efforts, illiteracy is still increasing. If, with all our best efforts, the gigantic evil is on the increase, what right have we to expect that the distribution of tracts or the button-holing of preachers and doctors will solve this problem. It is a growing problem, and we shall soon have experiments on it. This may be a temporary expediency. When people are educated, they perhaps will not need such a law.

He would take issue with Governor Brown in saying that education does not tend to the prevention of crime.

He entered a most earnest protest against the assertions of Governor Brown, and regretted exceedingly that the members of the Association had been compelled to listen to such false ideas. While acknowledging his respect for the chief magistrate of Missouri, he felt called upon to utter this protest.

Hon. John Monteith, State Superintendent of Missouri, replied to Mr. Phelps, saying, that while he did not rise to defend Governor Brown, who was able to defend himself, he did not think the views expressed by the Governor, so courteously and scholarly, ought to be characterized as outrageous.

He thought the question of compulsory education was yet open for discussion, and that it might be questionable whether, in order to carry out such a provision, a centralization of power would result, which would be incompatible with our institutions.

Hon. E. E. White. This is a grave subject, and it should be thoroughly and dispassionately discussed. Before we resort to a compulsory system of school attendance in this country, two questions should be carefully considered. To what extent is the American system of voluntary school attendance failing to reach the great body of the people—how great is the evil to be remedied? Will a compulsory system be a practical and efficient remedy, and without sacrificing the important advantages of the voluntary system? There is, I think, an error in the public mind respecting the actual number of children not reached by our schools. In determining the number of unschooled children, it is a very common mistake to subtract the number of pupils enrolled in a given year from the number of school age. The fact is that our school statistics do not show anything on this point. They do not tell us whether one, or ten per cent. of our youth are growing up in ignorance, and all conclusions based upon them are simply mischievous. If I had time I would like to analyze these statistics to show the correctness of this position. Let me give an illustration. The official tables for the year 1849 show that the number of children in Prussia between six and fourteen years of age was 3,223,362, and the total number of pupils enrolled in all the schools was 2,605,408, leaving 617,954 children, between six and fourteen, who were not in school that year. It certainly would be a great mistake to conclude that these six hundred thousand absentees in a given year are growing up in ignorance, for we know that every child in Prussia (speaking very accurately), attends school more or less before he is fourteen years of age. This shows that these two items of statistics do not give the number of youth who grow up unschooled.

I have endeavored to collect statistics by means of which the school attendance under the compulsory systems of Europe can be compared with the attendance in the older Northern States of this country where the voluntary system has had most time to work out its results. Is the compulsory system of Prussia bringing into the schools each year a larger proportion of its youth than the voluntary system of Ohio? The figures already given show that about eighty per cent. of the children in Prussia between *six and fourteen* years of age, are enrolled each year, while in Ohio the school attendance is about seventy-five per cent., of the number of youth between *five and twenty-one* years of age. We are not able to state what per cent. of our youth between six and fourteen (the school period of Prussia) attended school last year, but the statistics show that it was not much less than eighty per cent.—the standard reached in Prussia in 1849. It was probably full eighty per cent. Recent statistics, which I have seen, show that *eighteen* per cent. of the entire population of Prussia are in school in a given year. Ohio statistics for last year, show that about *twenty-two* per cent. of our population were enrolled in the schools, and, making a liberal reduction for errors, the statistics will still show, I think, that the school attendance is as large a per cent. of the population in Ohio as in Prussia.

We have statistics showing the number of youth in Cleveland, and the number attending school *for each year of age* between five and twenty-one, and hence we are able to compare the school attendance of Cleveland with that of Prussia. The Cleveland table shows that *eighty* per cent. of the youth of the city between six and fourteen were enrolled in the *public* schools last year. The enrollment in Prussia includes the middle and higher schools, the upper female schools, and the celebrated gymnasia, which doubtless had a considerable number of pupils above fourteen years of age. Making due allowance for this fact, the school attendance was better in Cleveland last year, than it was in Prussia in 1849. We have no data for comparing the attendance in private schools, but we believe that a greater proportion of the youth were in private schools in Cleveland than in Prussia.

So far as these statistics go, the voluntary system is not failing. I have not time to consider the efficacy of a compulsory law, even were it possible to execute it, which I very much doubt. What would be the effect of such a law? We have some very important facts bearing on this point. Some of the cantons of Switzerland have a compulsory law, and others have not. The attendance in those cantons having the voluntary system, is equal to the attendance in the cantons having the compulsory system. The attendance in Holland without a compulsory law, is equal to that of Bavaria with a compulsory law. These and other facts seem to show that the voluntary system, when supported by appropriate agencies, reaches the people as efficiently and effectively as the compulsory system.

Before I can favor the enactment of a general compulsory law in this country, I wish to be satisfied that it will help us. I am not sure that the enactment of a law that children shall attend school three months in the year between six and fourteen, or six and twelve, would not decrease the aggregate school attendance. It would set up a standard, which hundreds of families would accept as the measure of their highest duty to their children, and hence they would be sent to school a less number of years than they now attend through the influence of teachers and those who are endeavoring to elevate the popular standard of education and secure a longer attendance in school. It is believed that American youth attend school more years than those accustomed to the compulsory standard. While, therefore, I believe it to be both the right and the duty of the State to secure the education of every child born into its citizenship, and while I grant the State plenary power to establish and administer a compulsory system, I have serious doubts respecting the efficiency and necessity of the measure. I find myself clinging to our American system of voluntary school attendance, and if we, will only take care of the truants and vagrants, those children who are moral orphans, without parental care and control, if we rescue and educate these, I think we may trust a little while longer to this grand voluntary system, planted by our fathers.

The subject under consideration was referred to a committee composed of Messrs. E. E. WHITE and JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio, and J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 24.

Mr. W. R. Creery, of Maryland, as announced in programme, gave as follows, his thoughts upon this subject:

School statistics upon attendance are utterly worthless for purposes of comparison. The effort is made upon the part of a large number of Superintendents to present the attendance of their schools in the most favorable aspect. A very creditable motive, but it should not be encouraged at the sacrifice of any positively just principle.

While it is desirable in the highest degree to have a full and regular attendance of the pupils of a school; and while such attendance is absolutely essential to proper progress and study, yet it is not right to resort to any legislative artifice for the purpose of increasing the percentage of attendance, so as to convey an idea to the community that a larger number participate in the benefits of public instruction than an honest computation will justify. What is meant by legislative artifice? All rules or regulations which exclude from the total number belonging, any pupils who are absent, from any cause whatsoever, work an injustice and create occasions for misrepresentation. The number that belongs to a school is the total number enrolled for the time on which the percentage of attendance is estimated. For example:—suppose that in any one week 200 pupils are enrolled. The rule on attendance may direct that all who have been absent two days in a week shall be omitted from the number belonging. If there have been fifteen pupils sick for a period of three or more days, they are omitted from the number belonging, and the percentage of attendance is reckoned on 185, instead of on 200,—thus by an artifice raising the nominal percentage of attendance.

Again, any rules or regulations which exclude from the number belonging for the day, are productive of injustice and excite teachers to an unworthy emulation of competition with their fellow teachers for the credit of the best attendance. And here is meant any rule which locks the school door exactly at the minute of time for opening, and prevents the entrance of those who are two, three, or five minutes late by the school clock. Just as if it were not an absurdity to suppose that clocks or watches run alike, or that all children knew the correct time. This exactness of time is not the chief feature of objection—it is the exclusion of such pupils as are late from the number belonging for the day. It is the simplest matter in this way for a teacher to have one hundred per cent. of his school present every day. This practice of closing doors cannot be afforded by teachers generally, and what is the consequence—the clock is put back ten minutes so as to permit the tardy ones to come in, or, which is the same thing in effect, the time of lateness is calculated from ten minutes after the time of opening. Read teachers' journals for a confirmation of this declaration.

But school statistics are valueless for purposes of comparison, because there is no uniformity in the language used, and no common understanding of the methods by which the various results are derived. Open some of our school reports, and the multiplicity of terms is so great, it would seem that all the clerks of the Census Department would be required to prepare them. And after all, what use are they? You will find as many as ten or twelve distinctive terms, and each one having a special understanding in the mind of him who uses it, so that if any one desires to compare two cities—if he should find the same terms in two different reports, he is not sure that they mean the same thing. Among school men there seems to be a mania for statistics, which is really consuming the time and wisdom required in other directions, and unless some check is put upon this tendency, teachers will either have to be furnished with clerks to keep their accounts, or the whole of their time must be consumed in recording much that is valueless of statistical matter.

Again, the admirers of high percentage of attendance create wrong impressions, and give to the enemies of public schools an opportunity to make unfavorable contrasts upon unfair bases. School reports fall into the hands of a great many people, who, from a single item, draw a wholesale conclusion. It is a very pretty showing to have 95 or 96 per cent. of a school in attendance. The community in which this state of affairs is presented may be regarded as appreciating the whole subject of education to the value of ten per cent. more than any other city, which can justly show but 85 per cent. of school attendance. The truth may be, that the latter people love the cause as ardently as the former—but show it in a different way.

The enemies to our schools will also use whatever of argument may be created in one place to the detriment of another by invidious comparisons based upon statistical reports. In the matter of cost, for instance—a very important item—these tabular statistics should be very accurate, and, in each case where a cost per pupil is given, the precise names and numbers of items entering into that cost should be given. This is not done, and for purposes of comparison these tables are very unreliable; indeed, as they are now made, the cost per capita can be increased or decreased at the pleasure of the calculator.

I desire to make as fair an exhibit of school matters as any one can desire elsewhere. I wish to have a common understanding with all who represent school systems, to the end that good may be done, and the system of public instruction most firmly established.

I would, therefore, recommend the appointment of a committee, for the purpose of preparing some plans, embracing few particulars and a general application, for estimating school attendance. I would suggest the abolition of the term, "average number belonging," and consider all as belonging for the term in which they are enrolled.

Hon. W. T. Harris, of Missouri, offered the following preamble and resolutions, which were referred to a committee of which Mr. HARRIS is Chairman, to report at the next meeting of the Association. He said one of the St. Louis teachers sent pupils home for one half a term, and reported nearly one hundred per cent. of attendance. He thought the teachers of Baltimore do not have the support of the Board of Education as teachers in the West.

WHEREAS, the present system of keeping statistics of school attendance is imperfect—

I. BECAUSE it combines in one item the record of the pupil's irregularity and the record made against the pupil as an incentive to secure greater regularity, thus making the statistical record depend somewhat upon the strictness of the teacher in suspending pupils; and

II. BECAUSE it allows a different margin of registration for sick pupils from that for others, and again makes a difference between those who are absent intending to return and those who withdraw without such intention.

AND WHEREAS, it is desirable to have three items in the record of school attendance entirely independent of the strictness or laxity of the teacher, and free from all arbitrariness whatsoever, to wit:

1. The total number registered or enrolled from the beginning of the scholastic year, without reference to length of time, members of school, or whether present members or not, MINUS those received by transfer from other schools in the same system (sc. city or township); and

2. The average number of those in daily or semi-daily attendance, counting together the number present each day, and dividing the sum by the total number of days in the given time; and

3. The average daily or semi-daily NUMBER BELONGING, an item embracing not only those in actual attendance, but those reasonably expected—the actual attendance PLUS those temporarily absent.

[NOTE (1.) The total enrollment compared with the actual average attendance shows the irregularity of population, and the insufficiency of zeal or means on the part of the people at large to continue their children at school the whole scholastic year.

(2.) The average number belonging compared with the average daily attendance shows the temporary irregularity, and indicates the strictness of discipline on the part of the teacher, the moral tone of the pupils, and, to a large extent, the prevailing tone of the community.]

For these reasons, BE IT RESOLVED, that there be three items kept in the record of attendance, and that each of these items be kept carefully distinct from all records intended to have a disciplinary effect.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED, that instead of the present method prevailing for the item of AVERAGE NUMBER BELONGING, the following method be adopted:

That in all cases of absence from school, whether with intention of returning or not, whether the case be occasioned by sickness or other causes, including suspension of the pupil, but excepting solely the case of transfer to some other school in the same system; that the pupil's name be kept on the roll as BELONGING for THREE WHOLE DAYS, and dropped uniformly, in case he does not return on the seventh half-day.

BRIEF RESUME OF PRINCIPLES.

I. "How to improve attendance," should be kept separate from "How to get statistics."

II. There must be a margin sufficient to show temporary irregularities. This margin should hold and exhibit the effects of all withdrawals from school of whatever kind.

III. Careful attention should be paid to regulations regarding transfers.

Hon. A. J. Rickoff, Superintendent of Cleveland city school, Ohio, continued the discussion.

Hon. J. L. Pickard, of Illinois, said one point connected with average number belonging, is that sometimes there are not seats enough for pupils who apply for admission. One school might have a thousand seats and a thousand pupils. Another school might have a thousand seats and enroll fifteen hundred pupils during the year. If average number belonging is omitted in reports, these schools will show alike. He thought Mr. HARRIS' plan to report three items not affecting disciplinary work, would leave schools the privilege of doing very much independent work.

Pupils in Chicago think it a disgrace to be absent. All work of restoration is in hands of Superintendent. No member of the Board of Education interferes.

Attendance above 95 per cent. is generally to the sacrifice of something else of more importance. After three days of absence, pupils are suspended. He thought Mr. Harris' resolution met the exigency.

The subject was still further discussed by Mr. HANCOCK, of Ohio, Mr. UTER, of Illinois, Mr. ARMSTRONG, of Iowa, Mr. BULKLEY, of New York, and others.

Hon. JOHN HANCOCK was elected President of the Department of School Superintendence for 1871–'72.

The Section adjourned *sine die*.

Board of Directors.

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS

AT THE

SESSION HELD IN ST. LOUIS

August 22, 23, 24, 1871.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

The Board of Directors of the National Educational Association * was called to order by the President, E. E. WHITE, at the Southern Hotel, St. Louis; and adjourned to meet at Polytechnic Building on the following day, at eight o'clock, A. M.

POLYTECHNIC BUILDING, August 24, 1871.

Board met pursuant to adjournment, President WHITE in the chair.

Present, W. F. PHELPS, Minnesota; J. W. BULKLEY, New York; OTIS PATTEN, Arkansas; JOHN HANCOCK, Ohio; C. C. ROUNDS, Maine; N. A. CALKINS, New York; B. MALLOU, Georgia; J. N. BISHOP, Mississippi; Mrs. N. S. ROBERTS, Kentucky; A. S. KISSELL, Iowa; E. E. HENDERSON, Arkansas; J. H. HOLMES, District of Columbia, and S. H. White, Illinois.

On motion, the name of Miss M. L. HORTON was added to the list of Directors

The following resolution, presented by Mr. HANCOCK, was adopted:

> **RESOLVED, That the Presidents of the various Sections be requested to report their respective programmes for the annual meeting to the President of the General Association, at as early a date as possible, and that he be empowered to suggest such changes to these officers as may be necessary to harmonize the exercises of the sections.**

Voted, That Messrs. PHELPS, BULKLEY, and MALLOU, be a committee to confer with the Treasurer, and report probable amount of finances available for the publication of the proceedings.

Adjourned to fifteen minutes past twelve, P. M.

*** The President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Counsellors, and presiding officers of their respective departments constitute the Board of Directors. Constitution, Article IX. § 2.**

Board called to order by the President.

Present, W. F. PHELPS, OTIS PATTEN, N. A. CALKINS, A. D. WILLIAMS, of West Virginia, B. MALLOU, Miss N. CROPSEY, of Indiana, Mrs. N. S. ROBERTS, A. S. KISSELL, J. H. HOLMES, and S. H. White.

The name of Mrs. JULIA M. SOUSLEY, of Colorado, was added to the list of Directors.

Voted, That $150 be appropriated to the payment of balance of the debt of the Association, to Mr. ADEL, for reporting the proceedings of the meeting at Cleveland.

At the suggestion of J. L. PICKARD, retiring President of the Association, it was voted that a complete set of the proceedings of the Association be given to the Public School Library of St. Louis

Mr. PHELPS, of committee to consult the Treasurer, reported funds available, sufficient to publish proceedings of present meeting.

Messrs. W. E. CROSBY, JOHN HANCOCK, N. A. CALKINS, W. D. WILLIAMS, and S. H. WHITE, were appointed Committee on Publication.

Voted, That hereafter the Treasurer be required to keep, in a proper book, a full list of the names of members of the Association, with the post-office address of each.

Mr. HOLMES presented the following resolution, which was adopted:

RESOLVED, That the Treasurer is hereby directed to notify members not attending this meeting, to pay their annual dues if they desire to retain membership, and receive a copy of the proceedings of the present session of the Association.

Mr. PHELPS was appointed a committee to present the subject of Life Membership.

The time and place of the next meeting of the Association, was left to the decision of the Executive Committee.

Adjourned.

S. H. WHITE, Secretary.

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The Committee of Publication of the National Educational Association to Teachers and Educators of the United States:

The first National body of teachers met in August, 1857, at Philadelphia, under a call signed by the Presidents of ten State Teachers' Associations. During fourteen years eleven annual Meetings have been held, and the Association now embraces the Elementary, Normal, Higher and Superintendents' Departments, under a general NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, having for its objects "TO ELEVATE THE CHARACTER AND ADVANCE THE INTERESTS OF THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING, AND TO PROMOTE THE CAUSE OF POPULAR EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES."

The objects of the originators of the National Teachers' Association were:

To meet the enlarging demand for higher personal and professional attainments in the teacher.

To assist teachers to become more worthy the honors of the profession.

To enable them to reap the advantages which all professional Associations confer.

To give unity and effect to educational views.

To extend fellowship and sympathy in common labors and common interests.

It was supposed that every teacher whose heart was in his work would respond with alacrity to the call.

Since the organization of teachers' associations the vocation of teaching has rapidly advanced in dignity, influence and efficiency.

The duty of the teachers of the United States in regard to associated effort for the advancement of education seems to the Committee very plain and imperative. An appeal for more healthful, more invigorating, more inspiring, more effective modes of culture for the child—the future citizen—comes up from every class of society.

While all successful efforts for the progress of the race must be built upon the elevation of the teacher's profession, the statistics of society and the daily record of events indicate a decided want of vigor and effectiveness in popular education. The census of 1870 shows a startling, and in many states an increasing percentage of illiteracy.

While attendance at the annual meetings of the Association has been very gratifying, though largely local, the encouragement for the publication of the excellent papers and discussions, commenced in 1870, is not such as the vast numbers of teachers in the United States—now about a quarter of a million—should lead us to expect.

The object of this appeal by the Committee is to awaken the interest of teachers and educators in the National Educational Association, which will meet in August, 1872, in Boston, Mass., and also to direct attention to the fact that the Publisher for the Committee will supply copies of the Papers, Discussions and Proceedings of the Annual Meetings of 1870 and 1871, at $1 50 per copy. Address orders to JAMES H. HOLMES, Publisher, New York.

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Publishing Committee, for 1871-'72.

January, 1872.

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